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## The Week

OFFICIAL action on the French debt to the United States may be expected in the near future. The new Ambassador, M. Daeschener, now explains France has always intended to pay her debt, and never dreamed of doing anything else. He lets it be understood that he is charged with definite instructions from Premier Herriot in regard to the matter. The Premier, in the meantime, leads the chorus of French explanations that the speech of Deputy Marin was unofficial, private and personal. This is undoubtedly true; but it is also true that nearly all Frenchmen join him in his belief that the French sacrifice in the War was made "in the cause of civilization" and that part at least of the debt should be remitted. Deputy Marin's remarks were not another in the long series of French trial balloons; but from their character they might easily have been. The truth is, Herriot and his advisers now realize that interchanges of the sort which have recently taken place do the cause of France grave harm. Not only do they hurt her credit in the international financial market, but the discord between the countries which is stirred up makes it doubly impossible to hope for a settlement on moderate lines. What France needs, and urgently needs, is an end of patriotic oratory, and an official, concrete proposal to our government which is somewhere within hailing distance of what American public opinion will accept. Paris at last understands this, and official action will not be long delayed.

WE take it for granted that the Senate's delay in acting on the nomination of Mr. Stone to the Supreme Bench is intended only for political effect and will soon end in confirmation. At the same time we regret that the Attorney-General should have taken the action he has in the case of Senator Burton K. Wheeler of Montana, upon which the protest has been based. Senator Wheeler, it will be remembered, was indicted last spring in his own state on a charge of having accepted a fee, while a Senator, for appearing before a government department on behalf of a client. He replied that what he did for Mr. Gordon Campbell was not legal service but friendly aid to a constituent such as every member of Congress constantly undertakes. A Senate Committee investigated the charge and gave him a complete exoneration; but the Montana case itself has neither been tried nor dropped. Now the Department of Justice has asked a Grand Jury for a new indictment in the District of Columbia.

THERE may be good legal grounds for this; but if so, the Montana indictment should at once be withdrawn, and the District case prosecuted to a conclusion one way or the other. It has been almost universally believed that the Montana case was cooked up by Harry Daugherty in order to discredit and, if possible, to halt the revelations of the Brookhart-Wheeler senatorial committee. It is known that George B. Lockwood, publisher of the National Republican, sent an emissary to Montana to hunt for whatever damaging material he could find, and that this person aided the government in preparing its case. Certainly Senator Wheeler should now either be tried or formally exonerated. Further delay will constitute a bad blot on Attorney-General Stone's good record; it will look to the public as though Senator Wheeler were being not prosecuted but persecuted.


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TWO events of great importance took place in Russian affairs last week, just one year after the death of Lenin. Trotzky has been shorn of all powers both as War Minister and as a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party; and the three and a half years' negotiations with Japan have ended successfully with the signing of a treaty. The full meaning of Trotzky's downfall is still somewhat obscure, due to the rigid secrecy of the Moscow government; but a preponderating factor was clearly his personal incompatibility with his colleagues and the criticism of Communist policy contained in his famous recent book, 1917. The importance attached to his downfall by some European observers, who see in it the beginning of the end of the Soviet régime, appears to us fantastic. These same observers have been seeing the beginning of the end at least every second Thursday for the past five years.

THE agreement with Japan, if ratified as it probably will be, will greatly increase Russia's importance as a Pacific power, both in the eyes of the Western nations and in those of Orientals, including China and India. The terms indicate only a partial victory for Russia. While she escapes paying an indemnity for the Nikolaevsk massacre, Japan gets control of great oil and coal concessions on Sakhalin Island, paying only a small percentage of the proceeds to Moscow. The latter also agrees to refrain from propaganda in Japan. Full diplomatic recognition is postponed, presumably to see how well Moscow behaves. Excepting as to this last point, the agreement is interesting as a revelation of the present mood of Russia and a forecast of the Russo-French negotiations. Moscow evidently means business; and, however reluctantly, is ready to accept sufficient concessions to capitalism to make an agreement with France (if Herriot survives) at least possible.

THERE is no pleasing the real hundred and six percent patriots; and it is probably foolish to try. A conference was held in Washington last week on "the cause and cure of war"; and never was a meeting conducted which was more completely free from any tinge of radicalism. Of the nine national organizations of women which participated, not one is professedly a "peace" society. The speakers before the sessions consisted almost entirely of respectable college professors and equally respectable authorities on international affairs. At the conclusion of its week's work, the conference was so cautious that it did not even endorse the League of Nations, contenting itself with approving the Permanent Court of International Justice, the general proposal for the outlawry of war, the creation of a new federal office, that of "Under Secretary of State for Peace," and America's friendly assistance to the project outlined in the Protocol of Geneva. Yet even this mild, cautious and scientific attempt to study the causes and cures of war has come in for damnation on the part of our ever-alert witch-hunters. Mrs. Haviland H. Lund, whom our readers will remember from her activities described in Mr. Sidney Howard's series of articles on Our Professional Patriots, promptly called a meeting in Washington to protest against, and counteract, this gathering. The speakers before the Conference were abused in terms too puerile and nonsensical to be worth repeating; the wildest charges were uttered, falsifying both their own personal records and what went on at the Conference. It is to be noted that Mrs. Lund and her friends cannily avoided attacking President Coolidge, who made a speech before the delegates, approving the object of their meeting in the warmest terms. The witch-hunters are careful to abuse those whom they regard as unable to fight back on equal terms.

JAMES M. BECK, Solicitor-General of the United States, is the author of a book called The Constitution of the United States, of which a new edition is about to appear with a preface of warm approval by President Coolidge. Several previous editions of this great work have appeared, which are well worth the attention of any thoughtful student of history. The first one, for instance, was dedicated: "To the Honorable Harry M. Daugherty, Attorney-General of the United States, a true and loyal friend, a fair and chivalrous foe, with whom it is the author's great privilege to collaborate as Solicitor-General in defending and vindicating in the Supreme Court of the United States the principles and mandates of its Constitution." In 1924, when Mr. Daugherty's star was declining, the author published another edition. This one, or at least the copy we have before us, is dedicated to "The Masters of the Bench of Gray's Inn"—"in grateful appreciation," as Mr. Beck explains, "of the honor of being called by Gray's Inn to the historic Bar of England and of being admitted to the fellowship of its bench." The collector of Beckiana will find it to his advantage, undoubtedly, to buy each additional edition as it comes from the press, and see upon whom the Solicitor-General's cordial—if evanescent—esteem is temporarily fixed.

WE have several times observed that women are either not interested in politics at all, or else they are likely to have an attitude both more intelligent and more disinterested than that of the average man. The New York League of Women Voters is at present active in a matter which proves our point. It has been concerning itself about the fact that women citizens in that state are forbidden by law to serve on juries: Whereas nearly all men flee from such service as from the Black Death, the League believes that the restriction should be abolished; because, as one of its members, Miss Clara King, observes:

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> some of us feel this is a right that is denied us, some feel it to be a duty we are prevented from performing, and others that it is an educative source of contact with and understanding of our fellow citizens that we are cut off from.

We are under no illusions as to the peculiar effectiveness of women in public affairs when we record our hearty agreement with Miss King. Women have not brought the millennium in political life. On the other hand, in those numerous states where they now serve on juries, they perform these duties at least as well as do the men, and some observers believe, much better. Equal suffrage implies equal participation in every aspect of citizenship except those from which women are obviously debarred by physiological limitations. Jury duty is not one.

THERE is a great to-do over the announcement of the Census Bureau that between 1912 and 1922 the public debt, national, state and local, increased from $4,850,460,000 to $30,845,260,000 or nearly seven times. Governmental extravagance must stop! Taxes must be reduced! But let us pause a moment for analysis. The increase of the national debt, from $1,028,564,000 to $22,155,886,000, was caused chiefly by war bonds; the remainder of the growth, if increase in population and rise in price level are accounted for, was smaller than was to be expected. State debts totalled about $346,000,000 in 1912. The population increased 11.5 percent during the next decade, and an equivalent enlargement of debt would have brought it nearly to $400,000,000. In 1920 the price level was more than double that of 1912, but if we assume that the net increase of the debt due to higher prices, was only 50 percent, the total would have become $600,000,000 in 1922. As a matter of fact it was $935,000,000—a real growth of but 55 percent per capita. Similar analysis of local indebtedness shows the real increase per capita to have been only 30 percent. And both percentages represent enormous increase in equipment for productive service, such as roads and schools. The real test of public expenditures is not simply what we pay in taxes, but what we get for what we pay.

MOST people are now fairly familiar with the phrase "city planning" and what it connotes. We predict that in years to come "regional planning" will be heard even more frequently. Among the engineers, architects and others who think about such things, the belief is growing that the problem of the great modern city cannot be solved except by working on a scale which includes as well a large area of the surrounding countryside. These men long ago realized that new transportation lines do not relieve congestion, but only increase it; that with land values left strictly in private hands, the problem of decent housing for people of modest means is unsolvable in thickly-inhabited areas; and that we must think, not of facilitating more growth, but of making cities smaller. This is to be done by creating satellite centres on the outskirts, and perhaps by limiting these satellites in size by encircling them with bands of agricultural or park land.

IN the meantime, the State of New York has made itself a leader in the regional planning movement by taking steps for such an enterprise along the "Niagara Frontier." The effort, which is local and voluntary, embraces Erie and Niagara counties, with a population of about 850,000 and twenty-two villages and six cities, including Buffalo. In coöperation with the State Commission of Housing and Regional Planning, a Niagara Frontier Planning Association has been created, to deal with

> new communicating highways, parks, rapid transit facilities, regional zoning to provide for the proper location of industry and residential areas, the location of bridges within the region and across the Niagara river to Canada, the furtherance of parkways, boulevard extensions, water supply, sewage disposal and harbor and canal improvements.

Some of these subjects may seem prosaic, yet there are few themes on which greater exercise of the imagination is possible. Plenty of people dream about utopias; the planners of cities and regions in sober earnest set about bringing them to pass.

THE Proportional Representation League of Philadelphia has been analyzing the results of the latest British election, and points out some interesting anomalies which result from the "single-member district" system (used in this country as well) under which all votes are lost save those for the successful candidate. The League observes that the Unionists needed to cast only an average of 19,505 votes for each seat won, whereas Labor had to cast 38,613, the Liberals 88,473, and the Independents 30,884. If the seats had been apportioned on a basis of the actual total vote, the Unionists instead of getting 382 would have only 261. Labor's representation would be increased from 142 to 192, and the Liberals', from 34 to 105. Instead of outnumbering their combined opponents by 202 votes, as at present, the Unionists would fall 40 votes short of a majority.

IN some districts the unfairness of the result is even more startling. In Scotland the Unionists secured 36 seats by casting 688,298 votes. All their opponents combined secured only 32 seats with 1,028,175 votes. In the eleven counties south of the Thames, the Unionists took eighty-four places with 1,456,702 votes. Liberals and Labor combined got only one place with about two-thirds as many votes, or 929,599. The Proportional Representation League, which of course advocates a system whereby every party would be represented exactly in proportion to its share of the vote, calls such results as the foregoing "absurd." We do not see how anybody can fail to agree.

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# The State of Mind of the French Nationalists

THE recent speech of M. Marin in the Chamber of Deputies, dealing with the question of the debt of $4,000,000,000 nominally owed by France to the United States, expresses the prevailing feelings of the French nationalist party. They regard the alleged debt as unjust, irrespective of whether they can pay it or not. Inasmuch as they regard it as unjust, they will not, as long as their present state of mind endures, seriously consider the question of how much they are willing and able to pay. They are not *willing* to pay anything. The French government would say as much and more tomorrow, were it not for one fact. The utter and frank repudiation of its promise to pay would arouse so much resentment and desire for retaliation in this country that Frenchmen would be unable for many years to borrow in the American market. The problem of the French nationalist leaders at present is, consequently, that of obtaining a settlement which acknowledges the existence of the debt but which relieves the French nation of any definite obligation to pay it.

Their attitude, that is, towards their alleged debt to this country duplicates from the opposite point of view their attitude towards the alleged debt of Germany to them. In both cases they base their policy on what they take to be abstract justice irrespective of circumstances and consequences. It would be wrong for France to pay anything to her alleged creditors no matter for what purpose the borrowed money was actually spent and no matter how much she is actually able to pay. On the other hand it would be right for Germany to pay all her legal debt to the French nation no matter what the consequences of payment would be to the welfare of the German people or how little the French people could profitably consume the goods. If Germany fail to pay, no matter for what reason, it would be right for France to invade German territory and seize any property which seemed to offer security for the debt. It makes no difference how much injury the French invasion did to Germany or how impossible it was for her to pay the alleged debt or how worthless or costly the seized German property would be. The debt nominally owed by Germany to France is sacred. The debt nominally owed by France to the United States is tainted.

There is only one sufficient explanation of the French attitude. The mind of the French patriots is filled with a profound and inexhaustible self-pity. This self-pity persuades them to look on the state of France as an exceptional case for whose benefit credits ought to be punctually paid and obligations carelessly remitted and which is entitled to exemption from the natural consequences of its situation. This self-pity is not a fugitive or an easily appeased emotion. It is born of the history of France since 1815 and of the effect of the precarious standing of the French Republic in Europe upon the peculiar temperament of the French nation.

The French were the first continental European people to reach national self-consciousness and an effective national organization. As soon as the religious wars were over they emerged as the most aggressive and formidable military power in Europe, and for two hundred years they dominated the politics and the culture of the continent. During that period they learned to think of themselves as the most glorious, the most cultured and the most powerful nation in the world. The invasions of France and the occupations of Paris in 1814 and 1815 did nothing to diminish their good opinion of themselves. They had succumbed, but only to a combination against them of all Europe. The Napoleonic episode and the memories which it invoked increased their sense of their own peculiar importance, while the generosity with which they were treated at its ending left them free from grievances and humiliations. They still cherished a belief in their own peculiar franchise to dominate European politics and culture, and their support of Napoleon III was prompted in part by a longing to resume a leadership and a preponderance to which neither their power nor their culture, as compared to those of their competitors, any longer entitled them. Their diminution as compared to their neighbors in power and efficiency was proved to the world in 1870-71 by the results of the Franco-Prussian War. Their defeat was terribly humiliating to a people with such a glorious history and with such an inflated national self-consciousness. It was then that they began to pity themselves. Not being able to admit that they deserved their defeat, they were obliged to associate their shrinkage of power with a profound disparagement of the nation which had defeated, despoiled, humiliated and superseded them.

From 1871 until 1914 they smarted under the memory of the defeat and injustice and under the sense of inferiority in power. They strained their resources in order to maintain their standing as a great European and colonial state, but they were steadily falling behind in their race with their chief competitors. The German government took every opportunity of playing the bully and reminding them of their comparative impotence. The French nationalists remained ominously silent, but they longed passionately for revenge and for another burst of French glory and another vindication of self-esteem. When the War came and they found themselves attacked and from the start grievously wounded by Germany, they braced themselves with grim and fierce determination to pay the ultimate tribute to their bleeding country. They took the War to be chiefly a struggle for existence between France and Germany. They expected subjugation in the event of defeat. They demanded and considered themselves entitled to an assured preponderance in the event of victory. The victory was

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finally won after a contest in which the invincibility of the French national spirit contributed essentially to the result, but the victory was won only with the help of Russia, Great Britain and the United States; and it left France physically and emotionally strained to the limit. It has not restored to French nationalists the confidence in their country's assumed preëminence which they had once felt; but it has furnished them with a temporary military superiority in Europe and a chance to reassert the coveted leadership. Unfortunately for them the reassertion of French leadership was contingent both upon the consent of the countries associated with France during the War and upon the permanent refusal to the Germans of any opportunity to occupy the position in Europe to which their numbers, their industry and their technical competence entitled them.

The results of the victory have, consequently, encouraged the French nationalists to indulge in dangerous illusions and to undertake disastrous and suicidal enterprises. They are strongly tempted to use a necessarily temporary military superiority to reassert for France a permanent leadership in Europe, but they realize the hazards of the enterprise. They know in their hearts that the physical and moral resources of their country, even when supplemented by the resources of a large part of Africa, are insufficient to give them any assurance of success. They are being impelled by their patriotic fears, sufferings, loyalty and ambition to risk French credit on a desperate gamble. That is why, in spite of their victory, their military superiority and their apparent aggressiveness, the clue to their state of mind is self-pity and why they consider themselves the fitting subject for privileged treatment from their former associates in the War. The civilized world owes France so much and has so ill-requited the sacrifices and the deserts of that country that French nationalism justifies itself in attaching a sacred quality to its credits in the international balance sheet and in subjecting all the items on the opposite side of the ledger to a discount of at least 90 percent.

The foregoing description of French nationalist psychology is true, of course, only of its more extreme manifestations, and its domination of French policy is counteracted by a steadily increasing body of sane and realistic French opinion. But for the present French policy is still characterized by the mixture of self-assertion and self-pity which we have indicated; and its authors exhibit a shrewdness and skill in carrying out the policy which is strangely contrasted with the hot-headed patriotic complex in which it originates.

The French nationalists relieve their feelings by enthusiastically applauding both in parliament and the press the Marin speech; and on the next day the majority of the chamber will not permit the government to placard it on the streets and highways of France. Frenchmen do not behave as enthusiastically as they talk. They require, as they well know, for the success of their plans the connivance of their War associates, of the succession states and of Russia in French aggrandizement and in the prevention of complete German recovery. They hardly expect to obtain this connivance to the extent which they desire and need it, but they see a chance of obtaining it in some measure. So far as the English-speaking peoples are concerned, they hope to get it by threatening Europe with the awful consequences of refusing to France the reparations and the privileged position to which in their opinion she is entitled. The invasion of the Ruhr was the beginning of a policy of terrorism which is not yet abandoned. They have already obtained in return for a conditional promise to evacuate the Ruhr the full partnership of England and the partial partnership of America in a plan which provides for the indefinitely prolonged economic servitude of Germany. At the same time they have preserved the legal right to repeat in not improbable future circumstances the violent and destructive use of French military superiority which characterized the Ruhr invasion. By flourishing this weapon over Europe and over France's associates in carrying out the Dawes plan, they hope to prolong indefinitely by general consent and coöperation the existing supremacy of France and the existing subjugation of Germany.

This French policy is by far the most dangerous existing threat to the peace of Europe and the insuperable obstacle to general economic recovery. It requires to be opposed and counteracted, but to counteract it by war or the threat of war would be at once impossible, disastrous and unjustifiable. The most promising way of counteracting it is to awaken French opinion to the destructive consequences of the continued assertion of such a policy by French governments, and the most promising route to such an awakening is to keep the French keenly alive to the weak aspects of their position. While their army is invincible, their national finances are almost pitiably vulnerable. This weakness, culminating as it did in the threatened débâcle of the franc in March, 1924, the call for foreign assistance to prevent it from collapsing and the reaction of these occurrences on international politics, overthrew M. Poincaré. It has not, however, finally done away with Poincaréism, and until it does, until the dominant French opinion understands how ill it can afford the luxury of so much national self-pity and self-esteem, it would be unwise for the American government either to press France too hard or to let her off too easily. If their debts were cancelled and their credit improved, the French nationalists might be able to finance Poincaréism for another ten years. As the chief creditor of France, the American government seems cast for the ungrateful and unpopular rôle of moral accountant whose insistence may teach French nationalists to curb their ambitions. They need to learn that a preponderant army is no longer

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an infallible method of obtaining and proving political leadership. That leadership will go to the country which can place itself at the head of an economic federation of Europe—the only economic unit capable in the long run of negotiating on fair terms with their common master, the colossus of American capitalist finance.

## When Scholars Gather

FOR scholars, scientists, humanists, antiquarians, university professors of every color, in fine, for all those whom the newspapers fondly designate as "savants," the fiscal year ends and begins with the week following Christmas. At that time they take their intellectual inventories and make their budgets for the ensuing year. The occasion for all this is the gathering of the learned societies. Each professional group, each "subject," is organized into a national body, the chief function of which is to hold these annual meetings. Every year just after Christmas time (the vacation season for all the academic members) the scholars come together to hear and discuss the findings of such of their members as have findings to report, to alter, to talk over informally the work that is going forward in their own and other fields, to study, perhaps disingenuously, the merits of possible assistants or even successors, and most particularly to renew their courage for what is often a lonely struggle in the general enthusiasm for the common cause.

This intellectual scene makes a very interesting spectacle. During the week of December 29 of the Christmas season that has just passed, the scientific constellation, from physics to psychology, met several thousand strong in Washington. Simultaneously a social-science group, headed by economics and sociology, assembled in Chicago, while any number of single associations met separately in colleges and universities all up and down the land. To report all the activities of all these groups is neither possible nor desirable. Each society publishes its own minutes in its own trade journal where they are readily accessible, compactly recorded in the jargon of the craft for all the master-journeymen. But as a spectacle the learned societies deserve more observation and study than they have yet received. If it is true, as we have been told, that the truth will set us free, the great annual inventory of the truth is a matter of public concern, no less than the meetings of politicians and manufacturers.

For one thing, it is important to know how truth transpires. Perhaps the most striking observation to be made upon these intellectual gatherings is the extreme rarity, practically the non-existence, of "discoveries" of any magnitude. The casual visitor at the sessions of the most promising scientific group would certainly carry away the impression that he had suffered the ill luck to chance upon an off day. Going, very likely, in the expectation of participating in the announcement of epoch-making theories or research observations, he would come away with the impression of meticulous research upon picayunish specialties, of trifling announcements apathetically received, of petty disagreements unprofitably aired. Both these impressions would be false. Many of the papers which seem intolerably dull to the outsider are exciting enough to the initiates. Any given report may mean verification or contradiction to other workers in the same department. It could be a complete and total surprise only to the ignorant. In 1919, to be sure, the world was startled by an announcement, made by the Royal Astronomer at the meeting of the British Royal Astronomical Society, that eclipse observations made some time before showed the near stars out of place to the precise degree predicted by the German mathematician, Albert Einstein. That is, the newspaper world was startled. The Royal Astronomer and the displaced stars made excellent copy. But Einstein's work, including this prediction, had been done years before, beginning, indeed, in 1906. The displacement itself was no novelty. Both the astronomers and the mathematical physicists were waiting quite calmly for just this kind of correlation. Other experimental checks on the Einstein theory had been presented before; many have been published since. On this occasion no one was surprised but "the world." By a dramatic accident, the newspapers discovered Einstein.

That there will be more Einsteins no one can doubt, but who they will be it is now impossible to say. Pending the future, therefore, even the scientists must be pardoned if they fail to greet every paper by every patent office clerk (it will be remembered that Einstein held such a position while working out his theory of relativity) with the dignity it may some time command. Which is only to say that scientists are human. The American Association for the Advancement of Science resembles the Rotary Club and the Third International in this important respect: each is composed wholly of human beings.

The human aspects of the learned society are many and various. One of them, of course, is "boom." These, also, are propaganda organizations. The scientists have a cause for which they desire public approval. They meet in part to pass resolutions about Bryan, and they employ a press service to broadcast their adumbrations. Furthermore, scientists and "savants" are professional men. Each member of each society is building a career as well as setting burnt offerings before Truth. Every association is an employment agency for its department. In the nature of the case, therefore, the personal equation is the most important formula even of societies for the advancement of truth. This means that the lobbies and the corridors have an important part to play in the lives of scientists, if not in the cause of science. It means further that

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the personal note can never be wholly absent from the most obscure discussion. In a certain sense these gatherings are held to let Our Crowd show up Your Crowd. Science advances through the exposure of fallacy.

Some of these groups are livelier than others. Another human phenomenon not unknown to the Rotarians. In each case there is a reason, or reasons, rather, some human, some quite impersonal. Some sciences are moving rapidly, others are temporarily becalmed. It is interesting to note which are which. But the most interesting thing of all is to note the process by which all move forward. On this point the reports of our contributors are most illuminating. The sciences are moving forward by cross-fertilization. Nearly every paper notes the fact. Psychology is receiving an impulse from biology, biology from chemistry, chemistry from astronomy, astronomy from physics, physics from chemistry, chemistry from biology, biology from anthropology, and so around. Each field is assimilating the others, and being assimiliated. Each is becoming more "objective." This is the advancement of science.

# The Outlook for Technical Progress

THE possibilities of technical progress in an era of consolidated capitalism have long been a subject of acrimonious debate. Optimists have maintained that with the further concentration of industry more and more functions will be redeemed from the old anarchy of rules of thumb and inspirational hunches, and will be placed under the orderly rule of trained engineers. They have drawn vivid pictures of the old time inventors working blindly with improvised equipment to perfect a technical device for which perhaps there was no need. A great modern industrial plant has its own staff of inventors, prepared to meet each technical need as it appears. It has been stoutly maintained that not only is mechanical progress likely to be more rapid under the latter system, but the position of the inventor is more secure and significant.

Pessimists, on the other hand, have argued that the modern tendency operates slowly but surely toward the subordination of the technical personnel to the business staff, and business is naturally conservative. The initial period in the history of a consolidated industry may indeed be marked by rapid technical progress, while the most effective methods employed in any of the consolidated plants are being applied throughout the industry. When this has been accomplished however, progress, so it is often argued, will slow up. The financiers at the head of the enterprise will not care to disturb a condition which is satisfactory from the point of view of profits. They have no zest for pioneering, and in the absence of competition are under no compulsion to engage in it. The steel industry is sometimes cited as a case in point. After a febrile period of progress in which one revolutionary invention followed another, the industry was merged in the United States Steel Corporation. Practice was brought up to the best standards prevailing in any of the consolidated plants. The later financial history of the Corporation has been brilliant, but the technical history has been dull in the extreme.

This view of the unprogressive character of consolidated capitalism has recently received support, indirectly, from an authoritative quarter. President Baker of the Carnegie Institute of Technology of Pittsburgh has presented significant forecasts on the future of the engineering profession. He believes that with increase in the size of plants products will become more uniform, and the demand for the services of engineers who are also designers will diminish. There will be fewer chances for the great body of engineers. The minority who are highly trained and of great natural endowment will receive larger rewards than ever, but the majority will have to content themselves with routine functions. So sure is President Baker of his forecasts that he proposes to readjust to them the whole scheme of technical education.

The technical schools must strive to develop some engineers capable of doing creative work. These must be men highly endowed, and they must be given far more ample time for preparation than is given at present. But "the easier and bigger opportunity for the college is to train men who will fill the ranks of the great army of industry, but who cannot be originators or cannot do engineering work except in a limited degree."

Under President Baker's scheme of education we should have two classes of engineers. One of them, designed to recruit the higher technical staffs of the great corporations, would be required to go through a long course of rigorous training. It would have to be drawn chiefly from those family groups which could meet the expense involved. The other class, designed to carry on the engineering routine of the industry, would receive only such training as would fit them for their narrow functions. The training period could be relatively brief and inexpensive. Students of modest means, or even, in exceptional instances, of practically no means at all, might compass it.

From the point of view of economy there is much to be said for the plan. It is wasteful to try to teach a hundred students how to design a cantilever bridge when ninety-nine of them are predestined to devote their lives to administering the grease cups and automatic oilers. It is wasteful to try to teach a hundred young architectural students how to construct vaulted domes when ninety-nine of them are predestined to a life of economical blueprinting for surburban houses to be sold on terms equivalent to rent. It is wasteful to try to teach a

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hundred high school girls to write literary compositions when ninety-nine of them will compose nothing more ambitious than "Yours of the tenth inst. received."

In fact, the wastes of education, technical or "classical" are immense. And yet it has been the experience of mankind that wastes of this character have to be tolerated. For no device has ever been invented for determining in advance which one of the hundred students will turn out to be a great engineer, architect or writer. Even divine inspiration could find no better rule than "Many are called, few are chosen." Under the scheme of education and industrial organization forecast by President Baker, Steinmetz and Pupin, newly landed at Castle Garden, would have been headed straight for the grease cups. A young Edison would have been set trimming the oil lamps, a young Henry Ford might have aspired to the job of keeping the shop monkey-wrenches in order. Not one of them as a youth could have presented to a highly trained technical staff schemes of improvement that would have stood up against highly trained technical criticism. These men, and the thousands of lesser mechanical innovators who built up our industrial system, got their chance under the loose, anarchic scheme of competitive capitalism, which could not afford to look too closely into the professional antecedents of an idea that appeared promising.

In industry as in biology progress results from a nice balance of two opposing factors, economy of material, profusion of forms and ideas. Consolidated capitalism is beginning to provide for economy of material. Never in the history of mankind has so much attention been devoted to the elimination of some sources of waste. The other factor, the free generation of forms and ideas, does not appear to fare so well.

It is true that many of our largest industrial plants have equipped themselves with splendid research departments and maintain well-paid scientific staffs not necessarily restricted to the study of problems of immediate business concern. This is, however, commonly regarded as a pet extravagance, not as a significant condition of continuous industrial progress. There is reason to fear that this form of extravagance will be indulged in less freely as the consolidated enterprises fall more completely under the dominance of finance. Moreover, there is grave danger that such scientific staffs will lose all innovating spirit under a control which prefers a minimum of innovation so long as the flow of profit is steady and copious.

We do not maintain that it is impossible to reconcile the interests of economy and progress under consolidated capitalism. The great industries might conceivably tax themselves to educate thoroughly a great profusion of engineers, and make opportunities for them to develop originality, if it is in them. They might organize an institute for encouraging and rewarding the inventors who keep emerging often in the unlikeliest circumstances. But there is small likelihood that consolidated capitalism will exhibit any such far-reaching statecraft.

The signs of the times point to financial conservatism and crystallization of technique in the fields dominated by consolidated capitalism. They point to sharp restrictions upon the selective forces which have hitherto operated to elevate promising men from the ranks to positions of command. Under the more flexible order from which we have just emerged the interests of the engineer were attached to capital. This will still remain true of the small, highly trained technical staff, but the great mass of engineers will find their position assimilated to that of skilled labor.

It is conceivable that such a stable system of industry may endure for a considerable time. Yet it is worth bearing in mind that capitalism came into existence and rose to its greatest heights through the force of technical progress. Its moral defence has always run in terms of the encouragement it offers to enterprise—innovation and invention. It remains to be seen whether capitalism can either defend or maintain itself when it has achieved the end toward which consolidated capitalism is now tending, an orderly and profitable routine.

## Railroad Labor's Case

THE status of railroad labor has recently come to public attention again in three ways—the wage increase awarded by the Railroad Labor Board to certain classes of the clerks, the argument before the Supreme Court of the suit by the clerks and shopmen against the Pennsylvania Railroad for refusing to deal with their unions, and the renewed agitation for the passage of the Howell-Barkley bill substituting conciliation and voluntary arbitration for the Labor Board.

The clerks' wage case was notable because of a passage in the arbitration proceedings. The union's argument rested partly on the fact that since 1920 the wage adjustments of the train service employes had resulted more favorably than those of the clerical classes. The last demand of the engineers, firemen, conductors and trainmen had been granted by the roads without arbitration, but a parallel demand of the clerks had been refused. Both movements had begun on the New York Central, whose experienced Vice-President in charge of personnel, Mr. John G. Walber, was present at the Labor Board hearings. Chairman Hooper asked Mr. Walber why an increase had been granted to one group but not to the other. Mr. Walber replied in substance that it was because the management was convinced that the engineers would strike and that a strike would seriously injure the road, whereas the same considerations did not apply to the clerks. Thus the basic value of strong union organization and the function of collective bargain-

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ing in raising wages was dramatically made plain. An unusually frank employer confirmed what union spokesmen have always contended. The chances are that if the train service men had not possessed or exercised the power to enforce a wage increase independent of the arbitral court, neither they nor the clerks would have received one, however justified it might be.

The recent argument before the Supreme Court was part of an effort to restore genuine collective bargaining where it had been denied by a refusal of a railroad to confer. It is an old story how the Pennsylvania declined to negotiate with representatives of the clerks' and shopmen's unions, how instead it installed an "employe representative" plan of its own, how it held its own elections, refusing to allow employes to vote for their organizations as representatives, and conferred with "representatives" who were not supported by majorities of the employes concerned and were not backed by a genuine organization with a treasury and other essential aspects of economic power. The Labor Board ordered new elections which would give the unions a chance to function, as the Pennsylvania refused to obey the order. The Board prepared to denounce the disobedience, and the Pennsylvania secured an injunction to prevent the denunciation. This injunction was dissolved some time ago by the Supreme Court. The Labor Board published its anathema, but public opinion did not bring about any change in the road's policy. The present case is not an attempt to enforce the Labor Board's decision, acceptance of which is not compulsory under the law, but an attempt to enforce another clause of the Transportation Act, which makes obligatory a conference before arbitration. The act says in effect that the carriers and labor organizations shall confer and attempt to settle their disputes by negotiation, and it is only when such negotiation has failed that the Labor Board is to be called in. The contention of the unions is that the procedure of the Pennsylvania is an evasion of this clause, that the road does not confer in any real sense, that the stratagem of "employe representation" deprives the genuine unions of their right of conference, that it is contrary to the intent of the act and to public policy. They ask for injunctions which will force the road to confer with them rather than with its own representatives, and the shopmen also ask for damages. This case will have important reverberations, because numerous other roads have followed the Pennsylvania's example in attempting to kill the weaker unions by company-controlled "employe representation" plans.

Both these incidents throw a strong light on the pressure of the railroad unions for the passage of the Howell-Barkley bill. Its chief object is to abolish a form of adjustment which has tended to weaken collective bargaining, and to set up one which places the emphasis on conference and agreement between the parties directly concerned. Experience has taught the unions that public pressure is rarely effective in raising their wages and improving their conditions, and that even in cases where the railroads flout decisions of the Labor Board, public pressure is a fiction. The "public"—represented on the Board by appointees who may be prejudiced in favor of the carriers, and elsewhere chiefly by newspapers subject to their persuasiveness—is invoked nine times out of ten as an ally of the employers. Under the labor provisions of the Transportation Act, which compel arbitration when an agreement is not reached, the railroads have tended to pass every possible dispute up to the Labor Board, to ignore crucial decisions against themselves, and to call for public support of the Board when its decisions are against the unions. This is possible because the roads can disobey decisions by means of executive action without directly causing interruption of service, while the unions can try to overrule decisions only by the weapon of the strike. The Howell-Barkley bill attempts to guarantee conferences with genuine unions, and it attempts to make such conferences real by providing for public arbitration only when both sides demand it and are pledged to acceptance of the verdict.

Opponents of the bill have attacked it on the ground that it proposes to rob the public of power to resist demands of the unions. Anything, however, which will strengthen the institution of collective bargaining on the railroads is in the ultimate public interest. Genuine unions having economic power, and whole-hearted recognition of such unions, are a necessary basis of wholesome labor relations. Once this is granted, arbitration of disputes which cannot be settled in conference will become as much to the interest of the parties directly concerned as of the public, for no union, especially in a public-service industry, really wants to strike. And upon genuine collective bargaining may be built coöperation to render better service and so to benefit all parties, as the shop crafts unions and the Baltimore and Ohio have demonstrated. Whether under the existing law or under a new one, the key to the railroad labor problem lies in honest application of this principle.

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# Europe and the Protocol

THE Geneva Protocol has, I note, been much discussed in the United States in its bearing upon American politics. There were American correspondents present at Geneva during its framing, and particularly during the three days of tension over the Japanese amendment, who were determined to see to that. But much more important than its bearing on American politics are its bearings upon European politics—even for America herself. For what the Protocol makes of Europe must in the long run have a determining effect upon European-American relations.

I do not propose to speculate here upon the short-distance prospects of the Protocol. It may be ratified by three great powers and ten other members of the League by May 1 (as required for the assembling of the Disarmament Conference). Or it may not. The British government may ratify it after consulting with the Dominions, either with or without reservations. Or it may take upon itself the responsibility of rejecting it. Three other great powers may ratify it. Or they may not. The Disarmament Conference may be held this summer, or this autumn, or next year, or even later. It may adopt a scheme of disarmament or it may find the immediate problem too difficult. The Protocol itself may be rediscussed and amended to suit the needs of this or that country. All this is on the knees of the gods, and depends upon the movement of opinion and the play of party, personality and even accident, in many different countries—in Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Canada and Australia, to name but a few.

But what are certain and quite beyond the play of accident, unless my judgment is wholly at fault, are the long distance prospects of the Protocol. What was done at Geneva last September has introduced a new practical issue into the politics of every European country. That issue, as it comes to be understood by parties and people, will increasingly dominate the stage; and in doing so, it will transform existing alignments and bring a new international progressive movement into existence.

What is the object of the Protocol? It is to establish the reign of law in international politics by declaring aggressive war a crime and framing rules for the detection of that crime and for the enforcement of law against the guilty parties. The corollary to this is the reduction of armaments to the minimum needed for the employment of coöperative force, and the establishment of a central technical organization of inspection and control. Thus is the program outlined under the triple heading: Arbitration, Security and Disarmament or, to be more strictly accurate, Peaceful Settlement, Mutual Protection, Limitation of Armaments.

Why was it that this program, precipitated upon the Assembly of the League by Premiers MacDonald and Herriot, secured such enthusiastic and unanimous support? Because it has the merit of meeting the needs and aspirations of every section of progressive opinion represented in the Assembly. The debates of the previous year on the Cecil-Réquin Draft Treaty of Mutual Assistance had left a deadlock between what may roughly be described as the peace group and the security group. The Dutch and the Scandinavians refused to pledge themselves to new measures of mutual protection until they were assured of a definite advance in respect of arbitration and disarmament. The security group, who were by no means satisfied with the draft treaty because of its inadequate definition of aggression, refused to go further in the way of compulsory and general reduction of armaments, or of modifying their own defensive treaties, until they had secured more definite guarantees of assistance under the League. The Protocol met the need of the peace party by its bold extension of the realm of law: the acceptance by the great powers in the League of the peaceful settlement of all disputes, whether justiciable or non-justiciable, went even beyond their expectations and hopes. At the same time the Protocol met the needs of the security party by its precision in respect of the definition of aggression and of the obligations of mutual protection.

No doubt both sides surrender something. The pacifist states are asked to give up the right (if it is a right under Article XVI of the Covenant) to refrain from giving "loyal and effective" help, (as limited by their geographical situation and the existing condition of their armaments), to their fellow-members. The security party, on their side, give up the right to be the sole judges as to how much armament they stand in need of. They also lose the power to set their own allied defensive machinery in motion before an aggression, as defined by the Protocol, has occurred. This surrender of the right to what is always described in Geneva, an untranslatable phrase, as the déclenchement automatique, is one of the biggest gains to be registered under the Protocol.

But what both sides stand to gain by the Protocol far exceeds in value what they are asked to surrender, and it is only a question of time before this is generally realized. This is true, not only of the Scandinavian countries and Holland and of France, Poland and Rumania, but also of Great Britain and the Dominions. No state in the world has so great an interest in peace, in the maintenance of the status quo, in the conciliatory settlement of every class of international dispute as the British Empire; and no nations in that Commonwealth have a greater interest in peaceful settlement than the

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Australasian nations. If Poland, Rumania and Czecho-Slovakia are enthusiastic about the Protocol, Australia and New Zealand will make a similar response to similar considerations in the long run. It is only a question of time. Meanwhile what is more immediately interesting is the reaction of the Protocol on the political situation in Europe itself.

For three generations prior to the War, roughly from 1848 to 1914, the progressive movement in Europe was predominantly economic in character. The workingmen who constituted the bulk of its rank and file were assembled under the banner of Socialism. Pre-war Socialism was cradled in revolution; but as it developed its organization and gradually ousted Liberalism from the field, it became more and more evolutionary and constructive and, eventually, more and more national in its outlook. Each section of working-class voters concentrated on the fight against capitalism, and for this or that social reform, within the sphere of its own national action.

The War and its sequel have brought the pre-war Socialist movement to a dead end and introduced new issues and alignments. What was left of Socialism as a revolutionary force has become frankly Communistic. The breach between Moscow and the Second International has made it clear to all the world (except at election times) that the Socialist movement of today is a constitutional movement. At the same time the experience of office, which Socialist parties have enjoyed in various European countries since the War (Britain, Germany, Austria, Sweden, Denmark) has shown convincingly that the party must recover its international character and strengthen its international connections if it is to grapple seriously with post-war problems. How much of the domestic Socialist program could the British, German, Austrian, and other Socialist premiers put into effect? Conditions varied in the different cases; but everywhere it was problems of foreign policy which held the centre of the stage and blocked the way to domestic reform or reconstruction.

What does this mean? It means that in post-war Europe the progressive movement is compelled, by the logic of events, to be firstly *constitutional* in its mode of action; secondly, *international in the scope of its program.* From this to an advanced League of Nations policy is but a single step.

This is the explanation of the apparent paradox that an organization sponsored originally by men like Lord Balfour should have done its first big constructive piece of work when chance had brought together at the Assembly a group of Socialist statesmen from Britain, France, Sweden and other countries. What these men are trying to do, as was well expressed by the French Trade Union leader, Jouhaux, in a speech in the Disarmament Commission, is to create a condition of confidence and stability, of constitutional order, such as will permit international statesmanship to grapple with those far-reaching economic problems which Socialist parties in individual countries have not been able to solve owing to their essentially international character. As M. Politis, who, so far as I know, is no Socialist, expressed it with his usual neatness: "Peace takes precedence of Justice, because Justice can only come into her own in a condition of assured peace."

That is why, by an irony of history, which must be making Karl Marx turn in his grave, the standardbearers of the Socialist movement in Europe, for all their rebel origins and the red ribbons in their buttonholes, will be spending their best efforts in the press and on the platform during the coming months and years explaining to the peoples of Europe that through the extension of the realm of law lies the best hope of finding practical solutions for the problems which weigh upon their working lives.

ALFRED ZIMMERN.

# What's Wrong With the Home?

THE successful, it has been said, owe their success to the generous praise of the defeated. This certainly is not the spirit of the American home. In the course of its defeat it praises nothing; on the contrary, it criticizes everything in modern life, particularly in the life of youth.

The Juvenile Court is a social laboratory wherein one may see to best advantage the processes of disintegration and integration, the forces of youth in conflict.

It is significant that it was in America that the first Juvenile Court arose; for from America, about the same time, the civilized world received its first warning that all was not well with that ancient institution, the home. The first decade of the Juvenile Court marks the beginning of the rise in the curve of the broken home which is still mounting. Twenty-five years ago America had one divorce in thirty marriages, today one in five. It would thus almost seem as if the children's court movement were one of those protective devices by which the human race has so often with apparent blindness, yet with ultimate wisdom, averted or nullified the consequences of some great doom. Such was Christianity on the eve of the destruction of Grecian art and philosophy.

The Juvenile Court has averted to a certain extent some of the consequences of those selfish, bewildered adult blunders we call the broken home, but this has made the Court's work tremendously difficult. The Lord's Prayer sums up all of Chris-

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tianity in its seventy-two words. Yet our libraries groan under tons of controversial books and our blood has been more often spilled than not in the name of Christianity. So with that original masterpiece, the first Juvenile Court Law, drawn up by the Chicago Bar Association in 1899.

The Juvenile Court was created so that the state could deal with wayward children, in matters of care, custody and discipline in the *parental* way; that is to say, as a wise father and mother would deal with a child. It is difficult to make adults understand this. And it is to be feared the child does not understand it either. It was explained to a little girl that the Court wished to treat her as a mother: "Well, but," said the child, "I don't like it to treat me like a mean mother."

That is just the point. At the very time the Juvenile Court enunciated the principle of the parenthood of the State, parenthood itself began to weaken, so that not only were thousands of children who in happier conditions would never have come before the Court dumped at its courts, but the children themselves had no concept of what a wise, good father and mother ought to be. If we say to Joe, aged nine, we are going to treat you as your father, what image arises in his mind? Children are incurably loyal and romantic, so probably Joe sees his father as something else than the man who says in court: "You may take Joe. He has been nothing but a burden and expense to me, and I have supported him, you might say, practically all his life."

When we say to Clara, aged fifteen, "The Court makes you a ward so that you can be safeguarded and protected, and will deal with you as your parents"; when it says to the mother, "Will you now take this girl home and look after her?" and the mother says, "No, I cannot. There would be no one to look after her. I am working," and the Court says, "Is it necessary then for you to work?" and the mother says, "Yes, I am buying an automobile," what does Clara think of us and our parental rôle? Outwardly there is unquestioned acceptance: it is a matter of course that a family must have an automobile. But inwardly, all the old home words and attitudes and deep organic satisfactions have fled and in their place is cynicism. It was the primary function of the home to furnish behavior codes that aroused respect and that were endeared or dignified by parental sacrifices to attain them. Today in adding to the periphery of our homes we have somehow missed or lost the core.

The home, in forfeiting its homeliness, has lost much of its emotional and imaginative appeal. The application of so-called "modern conveniences" to everything has made the home a little dull. Children should deal with the elemental things of the world: earth, stones, trees, animals, running water, fire, open spaces, instead of pavements, signboards, subdivided lots, apartment houses, and electric percolators. Civilization has been hardest on children. For them it is doubly true, as Havelock Ellis says, "The new energy that all these inventions may give you on one side they take from you on the other. They run on the energy that you yourself supply." If invention "had given a keener sauce to hunger, a more ravishing delight to love; if it had added a new joy to the sunlight or a more delicious thrill to the springtime; if it had made any of these things a larger part of the common life, there indeed were a triumph to boast of." But the fact is our anæmic home life has lost its own spirit of adventure and creation—and in return we have given the children the automobile and the radio. To possess a radio is the only thing that keeps a modern child in nights, and then he is vastly discontented if the performance is limited to his home city. If he is in Los Angeles, he wants Chicago—if he is in Chicago, he wants Hollywood.

To anyone who has primed the pump on a cold winter dawn before he rejuvenated his being with the reality of cold water, and has watched the red sun spilling sunshine over the roof of the woodshed, the morning wrestle with a cold automobile is a tame affair. Children have been robbed of their legitimate energy outlets, and in return have been given energy-users that destroy them.

It took as much mechanical ingenuity and self-control properly to prime the pump as to start the Ford, but the pump never got you into trouble. . .

The World War has been blamed for much juvenile delinquency. Undoubtedly it has contributed to the breakdown of the American home. It unleashed the spirit of violence and destruction, it deprived children of parental control and it furnished bad examples to those young girls and boys whose mothers and older sisters lost their heads over soldiers and sailors. (This factor of a misguided patriotism and romance has been of tragic consequence in bringing many girls of twelve and thirteen before the court; their conduct is largely imitative of the sex-behavior of their mothers and sisters during the War.)

Other factors have been blamed for the failure of the home. Town-planning experts say that the greed of real estate in making home lots so small that children cannot be reared in comfort, or given adequate room to play in, is responsible for the weakened influence of the home. Where an apartment house has been erected in a city block never again will a home, in the true sense of the word, be built in that area. This may be true.

But the difficulty is more fundamental: "The essential home of the child lies in the relationship of the parents to each other," a wise woman said.

The family cannot be destroyed except by forces that operate within. The family is a primary social group. Lindeman defines a social group, in that it is "any number of human personalities acting jointly to express and attain a common interest." When we apply this definition to the home we see how true it is. The home is a group of human personalities (sometimes it has been defined

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as a tyranny ruled over by its meanest member); when it ceases to act jointly to express and attain a common interest it begins to sicken and die.

It is the primary function of the home to rear children in comfort and security, to furnish them with sound, joyous health and with behavior codes of sufficient virility to sustain them in conflict with demands of modern business, adventure, ambition and monotony.

To do this the home must possess as its common interest something beyond bread-winning or personal distinction. Its centre of gravity must be sound biologically, that is to say in the best interests of childhood. It is not that we need "more and better babies," a policy which may turn the spirit of the home into something like that of the factory. What we need is the parental attitude that respects the personality of children and seeks to deepen and enrich their social relationships.

The decaying remnant of the Puritan home exhibits its chief failure, not so much in loss of its old cookery, sombre beauty of furniture and household utensils, loss of dignity and moral standards as in its emotional attitude toward family formation. It is a failure of virility and joy in parenthood. Mothers who will not permit their sons and daughters to marry, parents who value academic and business achievement beyond adequate emotional growth of their children contribute to the weakening and perversion of the biological impulse that is the root of the broken home.

Parents have refused to be educated. Intrusted with the task of rearing, sheltering, nourishing and guiding the most complex organism that life has produced they insist on relying upon tradition, whims, prejudices and obsolete religious sanctions.

Society responds by erecting schools and ordering all the children into them for the best part of their time so that they may gain adequate tools and ideas to make a go of living. But the schools make use of much of the bad machinery of the home. They set up codes of ordering and forbidding, and if the children rebel, and—yielding to far older biological impulses—play truant, they send the children to *parental* schools. These parental schools imitate all that is defective in the home life of the children, and if they have introduced any new, fundamental idea in scientific child guidance I am not aware of it.

Then there comes a time when the rebelling child must be sent to an institution, for the home has broken down, not only in education but in feeding, clothing, sheltering and sleeping arrangements. It is clear to anyone that the child will be better off on the material and moral side. The institution, too, pays its tribute to the failing home; it tries to make its dormitories *home-like* by use of accessories like curtains, mottoes and decorated china. Inspectors, members of boards of control and the like, on viewing these neat, orderly structures, observing the subdued air of the children, their shining heads and clean dresses, come to the conclusion that the institution is Class A and deserves community support.

Recently a sixteen-year-old Mayor of a Junior Republic, a model in its way, in replying to a question, "How would you like to see our present system changed?" wrote:

"A boy, while in an institution, should see his parents, friends or guardian more often, as a boy is always thinking of them."

This boy is happy and he is in third year high school, but he would rather see his friend dead, he says, than sent to any institution. The earnest, rapt way in which he says it, leaves no doubt in mind. He is sincere. "There ought to be some other way of fixing a boy up," he says. Social workers have all encountered these resolute expressions, this fixed organic dissatisfaction and discontent in spite of everything we have done and can think of doing in behalf of the child who comes before our courts. How shall we remedy this state of affairs, how cure this attitude, and while still maintaining this boy in adequate material comfort and moral safety give him something worth living for in life?

The institution in this case, like the broken home, is not a true social group; it is not acting jointly to express and attain a common interest. It is acting as an agent of mechanical compulsion to reach a goal through force, a distant, unfriendly success, all foreign to the warm currents of the boy's being.

So it is with homes. They have failed to respond to the fresh definitions of science with reference to the needs of childhood, and they have lost interest in life, in and for itself. Youth seeks to find heightened moments and vivid experience; it tries cosmetics, gaiety, jazz, dance-halls, moving pictures, automobiles and radio. Adults rush after, either with clamorous protest, or pathetic imitation, shortening their own skirts, or preaching sermons or establishing organizations for the "protection," suppression or entertainment of boys and girls, while all the time the young people grow more indifferent, or contemptuous, dimly conscious that these adults are spiritually bankrupt. For the young there can never be a substitute for philosophy. Youth rightfully looks to maturity for some clew, some reason that will justify the painful business of birth, schooling, illness, struggle, victory, defeat and death.

The modern church, with a few notable exceptions, busies itself with discussion in terms which have no more meaning to hungry souls than the intricacies of a cross-word puzzle. Art expresses the eccentricity, or the struggle of individual artists, unmindful of their supreme function, that of creating beauty which gives meaning to life. Business consumes the skill, deadens the initiative and originality of young people and exhausts the strength of their nimble fingers. Women's and men's clubs dwell on their little culture-islands remote and apart from the eager, crude, noisy horde of young human beings who, in all their restlessness, seek nothing so much

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as initiation into the art of living. It is no wonder that the enforced experimentation of the young has caused them to commit blunders and even crimes.

There is no easy solution. The remedy does not lie in legislation, or more social machinery, nor in a backward journey to those simpler forms of life that sufficed our ancestors. Adolf Meyer has said that it is important for a civilization not to have more laws, but "to furnish principles and customs." Modern society must somehow grasp anew the fundamentals of healthy parenthood. It is not enough to raise the age of marriage, nor to enforce uniform marriage laws, nor enact measures in the interest of eugenics. There must grow up an adequate sense in the public mind of the importance of the needs of childhood and a more generous, more biologically sound view of family formation. We cannot expect youth to be impressed with a shallow concept of the home as a place in which to eat, sleep and receive supplies. It must furnish an emotional background, a sense of warmth and security and a guiding line that can withstand the confused definitions of modern life. This can come about only when adults understand themselves and before building a home conceive the home as the primary social group in a world full of interest, struggle, and great and splendid hazards.

It is the value of juvenile delinquents that they offer a critique of modern civilization. They express what we conceal and they point the way to greater frankness, less hypocrisy. Youth with all its mistakes is more sound than most of its detractors. It is conflict which gives value to life.

MIRIAM VAN WATERS.

# The College of Money-Changing

## *II. Is Business a Profession?*

THE ostensible purpose of the college of commerce and administration is to train business men. Under university auspices this training is necessarily professional. The axiom of the apologists for the school of commerce is, therefore, that business is a profession. It must be. Otherwise how can the colleges teach it? Unfortunately for the apologists, however, this doctrine is extremely vulnerable. Business is obviously not a profession. A business man is any one who is earning his living by any devices except manual labor, the lower grades of clerical work, or the stereotyped professional services of lawyer, doctor, preacher, teacher, dentist, artist, typist, palmist, magician, musician, actor, chiropractor or journalist. Any individual member of one of these services may be more business than professional man, of course, by which is meant simply that his income is derived less from the quality of the professional services he renders than from various nondescript ingenuities in which his professional character may or may not play a part. In short, a business man makes his living by his wits and not by any form of labor, lowly or exalted. The professional man sells services; the business man, "himself."

This distinction is vital to a clear understanding of the case of the business college. Many critics of the educational policy which extends academic standing to the college of commerce and administration have taken the line that business is not a profession because it is an unworthy profession. This was the argument of Mr. John Jay Chapman in the already famous speech which he flung at the heads of the faculty of the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration last May. "In your ten million dollar drive," said Mr. Chapman, "you have submerged the laboratory in Harvard's new, great, historic, holy discovery that Business is a profession. . . . Being charged with commercialism, Harvard admits the indictment and triumphs. This reminds one of a story of a matron who came upon her daughter walking arm-in-arm down Wall Street with an only too well-known financier. 'But, oh, Mama,' cried the daughter, 'don't you understand? It's my *profession*.'" Unfortunately for Mr. Chapman's irony, however, it is not supported by the facts. The difficulty is not that business is unworthy the name profession. Acting is universally admitted to be a profession. Yet such has been its social standing in a puritan society that no university undertakes to train its apprentices, unless the new Harkness Foundation at Yale is to be taken as a step in that direction. Business is not a profession, not because it is immoral, but because it is nondescript.

Nevertheless, the colleges of commerce and administration are undoubtedly professional schools. The most casual examination of their courses of study reveals a situation which is capable of no other interpretation. Never was a theological seminary more immaculate in the matter of pecuniary taint. Nowhere, in any of the literature of "promotion" and interpretation of these schools, can the slyest critics find even the vaguest and most rudimentary guarantee of large, much less quick, returns. On the contrary, applicants are warned like monastic novitiates of the ordeals to be endured before they attain a state of grace. "It is recognized," says one catalogue, "that men generally find it necessary to enter business as beginners in subordinate positions." Another draws its picture of "the early probationary period of actual business experience," and the "routine work which he (the probationer) must expect to undertake dur-

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ing the earlier part of his business career." The graduate in business, no less than in theology, begins professional life as a curate.

Indeed, the general assumption is that the graduates of colleges of business administration are to be employes. The Harvard school is by far the most pretentious institution of the kind in existence. Not only is its work limited to graduates; it seems to assume a considerable degree of pecuniary power. The tuition is four hundred dollars, a hundred more than the medical school, double that of the law school, while if divinity be considered the fact emerges that students are almost universally subsidized to come. This may be taken as an augury of the pecuniary fortunes of the graduates of these schools. Yet I venture to think that it is rather an index of the astuteness of the administrators of the business college. In the matter of tuition as in all else the clew to a successful charge is what the traffic will bear. In divinity, the traffic will bear up only with a substantial subsidy. In business, the higher charge can be collected. The administration measures not the value of what is given but the students' ardor to get it. This the authorities of the Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration are quite competent to do. Witness, in the report of the Dean to the President, the shrewdness with which they brought their knowledge of the business cycle to bear on the problem when an endowment had best be sought! But whatever these things may mean, the Harvard school, with all its obvious superiority, plans its disciplines for the prospective employe. "Inasmuch," it says, "as investigations and reports to superiors form perhaps the most frequent and valuable opportunity for business advancement, the Faculty pays much attention to this subject. In the early part of the course elementary instruction is given in the methods of making investigations and reports."

This expectation is borne out by experience. A little more than a year ago a joint committee of the American Management Association and the Association of Collegiate Schools of Business conducted a survey covering all the graduates of eight representative schools of business. Their tabulated replies describe the condition of twenty-one hundred graduates. Of these, 16 percent were in business for themselves. All the others occupied "positions." The salaries are said to be satisfactory in level and rate of increase, "particularly when one considers the comparatively small salaries paid in many highly specialized and technical fields." These are the fields which by common consent challenge comparison. Indeed, this study "shows clearly that the schools have as their great objective a long time development into places of trust and responsibility." The picture which even the candidate for admission is asked to visualize, then, is the "place of trust and responsibility," not the steam yacht and the palace at Palm Beach.

What these places of trust and responsibility are is made perfectly clear by the course of study. This is rapidly becoming standardized. It provides for specialization in one of half a dozen clearly defined fields. As the analysis proceeds from one course of study to another these fields emerge with such startling clearness as to suggest the most carefully laid agreement. Everywhere accounting and statistics form the basis of the course. They are the tools of all the specialties, as mathematics is the tools of every scientist. But like mathematics, they can also be wooed for themselves alone. Advanced, and still more advanced, accounting, business statistics, financial statistics, and the most rarified methods of statistical analysis clearly bespeak the certified public accountant and the uncertified but no less professional statistician. So much for methodology. On the side of substance the divisions are equally precise. Buying and selling have their shingles out almost universally. The student makes a general survey of "market organization," becoming a past master of all the technical details that condition the actual transfer of goods, the instruments of sale, the legal enforcement of buyers' contracts, the problems of transport and insurance in transit. Or he studies "sales promotion." Here lie before him all the accredited methods of campaigns, of large-scale solicitation, in particular, inevitably, of advertising. This much forms the basis of the course of practically every collegiate school of business in the country.

Beyond these generalized functions lie various specialties. The most familiar is banking (commercial or investment). Foreign trade, factory administration, and labor management seem also to be basic; though a given school may not offer a specialty in these fields, it can hardly avoid a course in each. Less obligatory departments are insurance (with actuarial accounting and statistics), transportation (either railway statistics and the management of traffic, or railway accounting and financial organization), and finally, perhaps, public utilities (with the law of franchise). In sum, the most conspicuous courses in the curriculum of the college of commerce are the course in playing the stock exchange and the course in organizing and managing your own concern. They are conspicuously absent.

These data are self-interpreting. The colleges of business administration are training their students not for business but for the professions, for the business professions. Wherever a profession has emerged out of the miscellany of business life, the colleges have seized upon it and made it their own. The accountants are the easiest to separate They are as professional as veterinary surgeons, so professional, indeed, that the survey mentioned above carefully counts them out when inquiring how many graduates manage their own business. All regular accountants, apparently, are independent professional men. The other fields are of essentially the same character. Behind the courses in labor management one can see the profession of labor man-

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ager, personnel manager, employment manager, or director of personnel relations. The title has not been reduced to the standard initials of the C. P. A., but the case is much the same. Advertising and sales supplication, as many economists have noted, is a specialized technique almost sacerdotal in its separateness. Railway operation is a unique conglomeration of statistics and engineering. Railway accounting is a thing apart. The Interstate Commerce Commission works out a system of uniform accounting obligatory upon all railway companies and a new profession has been born.

The whole situation is summed up in the official blurbs. The schools of commerce justify themselves by citing the "growth in size of business units," the "intricacy of organization and complexity of operation" with which modern business men have to cope. The college of business administration would help to cope with them—by supplying professionally trained accountants and statisticians.

The conclusion is inescapable: these schools train for professions, not for business. Like that of the law school, their work is closely concerned with the interest of business men; but their graduates, like those of the law schools, are not made into business men by their technical preparation. On the contrary, the usual business career is largely closed to the professional graduate in each department. No doubt many individual insurance actuaries or personnel directors become members of their firms, just as many individual lawyers do. But this does not invalidate the general principle. Generally, lawyers remain lawyers even within a hospitable firm. So, also, must the statistician.

From this condition there emerges another interesting possibility for the collegiate school of business. Lawyers are, upon the whole, a conservative, not to say subservient, profession. Very seldom do the resolutions adopted by bar associations undertake to lecture the corporate employers of the legal profession upon their sins against society. Nevertheless, the lawyer as a self-conscious professional man professes a social responsibility unknown to stock jobbing and real estate brokerage. And although this sense of community responsibility may be weak in some members of the bar association it is correspondingly strong in others. The lawyer who conducts the affairs of his profession as though he were administering a public trust, definitely abandoning pecuniary gain as the object of his labors, is not an unrecognizable rarity. Furthermore, and most important, he is to be found with greatest frequency upon the faculties of the university schools of law. Thus the greatest law school in the United States, that of Harvard University, is wholly dominated by the idea of law as an instrument of social control. It is not inconceivable that the same idea may in time prevail in the greatest school of business. Like the law, the business professions stand in a position of peculiar responsibility. They represent the standardized procedures by which business is conducted. The business as well as the legal professions necessarily have a peculiar insight into all the interesting subterfuges by which business men manipulate the affairs of the community. More than the general public they know what is going forward. More than the general public their skill can devise the means of controlling it. They will not always be able to resist a responsibility for exerting their powers in the public interest. Ultimately there will arise in the Graduate School of Business Administration a Roscoe Pound. An irony, perhaps, but manifest destiny.

The training afforded by such a school will not be training for business, but neither is that available today. The special courses of the commercial departments train specialists; the incubator in which business men are hatched is "college life." The undergraduate colleges have been made by the scions of business men in the image of their class. Business is not a particular technique, it is the life of exploit. The word need not be taken in a derogatory sense. To be sure, the business man is simply one who is seeking to gain a pecuniary advantage. But neither in this motive nor in the achievements which result from it is the business man a whit inferior to his colleagues in the professions. How could he be, since he is indispensable? Civilization depends on him. Without his service as enterpriser, as gatherer and organizer, the laborers in the vineyards and the bibbers in the wine shops find it quite impossible to bring their interest in each other into effective adjustment. Here again the point is not that business is sinister but that it is indifferent. It is preoccupied not with grapes but with enterprise. The farmer deals with grapes, the business man with farmers. His business is the control of men, in short, exploit.

For the life of exploit only one preparation is either possible or needful and that is an initiatory life of exploit. This our colleges have been adapted to afford. The familiar saws upon the importance of undergraduate activity (that one should not let his studies interfere with his college education, and the like) are not without significance. From the point of view of the undergraduate of noble birth, the college is presented as a four-year vista of football teams and managerships, editorial boards and fraternities, class offices and elaborately ostentatious junior promenades, student governing boards and senior cliques, the last supreme achievements of Hasty Pudding clubs and Skull and Bones societies—all competitive, all maintained by the prestige of popular envy and obeisance, all obtainable by influence and intrigue, by deals and combinations, by brute strength and calculating skill and the resolute subordination of all the other goods of life to the attainment of the one sure mark of undergraduate "prominence." This is the school in which business men are germinated. This is the college in which your true millionaire enrolls his son.

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From the school of commerce issue the professional men, just as the catalogues have promised. They may speak the language of Mammon. For the present, indeed, their professors are almost vulgarly familiar in their protestation of their complete corruption. Nevertheless the professors probably deceive themselves. As much as any other members of the university faculties they are professional servants of the community, and they will ultimately find it out, many of them, at least. Theirs is after all a laboratory service. From the point of view of education the most dangerous and unamenable department remains the undergraduate college. The school of commerce has Mammon upon the dissecting table; the college is Mammon in the home.

C. E. AYRES.

# James Boswell

IT would be difficult to find a more shattering refutation of the lessons of cheap morality than the life of James Boswell. One of the most extraordinary successes in the history of civilization was achieved by an idler, a lecher, a drunkard, and a snob. Nor was this success of that sudden explosive kind which is frequent enough with youthful genius—the inspired efflorescence of a Rimbaud or a Swinburne; it was essentially the product of long years of accumulated energy; it was the supreme expression of an entire life. Boswell triumphed by dint of abandoning himself, through fifty years, to his instincts. The example, no doubt, is not one to be followed rashly. Self-indulgence is common, and Boswells are rare. The precise character of the rarity we are now able, for the first time, to estimate with something like completeness. Boswell's nature and inner history cannot be fully understood from the works published by himself. It is only in his letters that the whole man is revealed. Professor Tinker, by collecting together all that is known of Boswell's correspondence and editing it with scholarly exactitude, has done a great service to English literature.* There is, in fact, only one fault to be found with this admirable book. Professor Tinker shows us more of Boswell than any previous editor, but he does not show us all that he might. Like the editors of Walpole's Letters and Pepys's Diary, while giving himself credit for rehabilitating the text of his author, he admits in the same breath that he has mutilated it. When will this silly and barbarous prudery come to an end?

Boswell's career was completely dominated by his innate characteristics. Where they came from it is impossible to guess. He was the strangest sport: the descendant of Scotch barons and country gentlemen, the son of a sharp Lowland lawyer, was an artist, a spendthrift, a buffoon, with a passion for literature, and without any dignity whatever. So he was born, and so he remained; life taught him nothing—he had nothing to learn; his course was marked out immutably from the beginning. At the age of twenty-three he discovered Dr. Johnson. A year later he was writing to him, at Wittenberg, "from the tomb of Melancthon"; "My paper rests upon the gravestone of that great and good man. . . . At this tomb, then, my ever dear and respected friend! I vow to thee an eternal attachment." The rest of Boswell's existence was the history of that vow's accomplishment. But his connection with Dr. Johnson was itself only the crowning instance of an overwhelming predisposition, which showed itself in a multitude of varied forms. There were other great men, for instance—there was Mr. Wilkes, and General Paoli, and Sir David Dalrymple. One of Professor Tinker's most delightful discoveries is a series of letters from the youthful Boswell to Jean-Jacques Rousseau, in which all the writer's most persistent qualities—his literary skill, his psychological perspicacity, his passion for personalities, and his amazing aptitude for self-revelation—are exquisitely displayed. "Dites-moi," he asked the misanthropic sentimentalist, "ne ferai-je bien de m'appliquer véritablement à la musique, jusque à un certain point? Dites-moi quel doit être mon instrument. C'est tard je l'avoue. Mais n'aurai-je le plaisir de faire un progrès continuel, et ne serai-je pas capable d'adoucir ma vieillesse par les sons de ma lyre?" Rousseau was completely melted. The elder Pitt, however, was made of sterner stuff. When Boswell appeared before him in the costume of a Corsican chieftain, "Lord Chatham," we are told, "smiled, but received him very graciously in his Pompous manner"—and there the acquaintance ended; in spite of Boswell's modest suggestion that the Prime Minister should "honor me now and then with a letter. . . . To correspond with a Paoli and with a Chatham is enough to keep a young man ever ardent in the pursuit of virtuous fame."

Fame—though perhaps it was hardly virtuous—Boswell certainly attained; but his ardent pursuit of it followed the track of an extraordinary zigzag which could never have had anything in common with letters from Lord Chatham. His own letters to his friend Temple lay bare the whole unique peregrination, from start to finish. To confess is the desire of many; but it is within the power of few. A rare clarity of vision, a still rarer candor of expression—without these qualities it is vain for a man to seek to unburden his heart. Boswell possessed them in the highest degree; and, at the same time, he was untroubled by certain other qualities,

* Letters of James Boswell. Collected and edited by Chauncey Brewster Tinker, 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press 3

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which, admirable though they be in other connections, are fatal for this particular purpose. He had no pride, no shame, and no dignity. The result was that a multitude of inhibitions passed him by. Nevertheless he was by no means detached. His was not the method of the scientific observer, noting his introspections with a cold exactness—far from it; he was intimately fascinated by everything to do with himself—his thoughts, his feelings, his reactions; and yet he was able to give expression to them all with absolute ingenuousness, without a shade of self-consciousness, without a particle of reserve. Naturally enough the picture presented in such circumstances is full of absurdities, for no character which had suppressed its absurdities could possibly depict itself so. Boswell was ex hypothesi absurd: it was his absurdity that was the essential condition of his consummate art.

It was in the description of his love affairs that this truly marvellous capacity found its fullest scope. The succession of his passions, with all their details, their variations, their agitations, and their preposterousnesses, fill the letters to Temple (a quiet clergyman in the depths of Devonshire) with a constant effervescence of delight. One progresses with marvellous exhilaration from Miss W——t ("just such a young lady as I could wish for the partner of my soul") to Zelide ("upon my soul, Temple, I must have her"), and so to the Signora, and the Moffat woman ("can I do better than keep a dear infidel for my hours of Paphian bliss?"), and the Princess ("here every flower is united"), and the gardener's daughter, and Mrs. D., and Miss Bosville, and La Belle Irlandaise ("just sixteen, formed like a Grecian nymph, with the sweetest countenance, full of sensibility, accomplished, with a Dublin education"), and Mrs. Boswell ("I am fully sensible of my happiness in being married to so excellent a woman"), and Miss Silverton ("in the fly with me, an amiable creature who has been in France. I can unite little fondnesses with perfect conjugal love"), and Miss Bagnal (*"a Ranelagh girl,* but of excellent principles, in so much that she reads prayers to the servants in her father's family, every Sunday evening. 'Let me see such a woman,' cried I"), and Miss Milles (*"d'une certaine âge,* and with a fortune of £10,000"), and—but the catalogue is endless. These are the pages which record the sunny hours of Boswell's checkered day. Light and warmth sparkle from them; but, even in the noon of his happiness, there were sudden clouds. Hypochondria seized him; he would wake in the night "dreading annihilation, or being thrown into some horrible state of being." His conscience would not leave him alone; he was attacked by disgraceful illnesses; he felt "like a man ordered for ignominious execution"; he feared that his infidelities to Mrs. Boswell would not be excused hereafter. And then his vital spirits rushed to his rescue, and the shadow fled. Was he not the friend of Paoli? Indeed he was; and he was sitting in a library forty feet long, dressed in green and gold. The future was radiant. "My warm imagination looks forward with great complacency on the sobriety, the healthfulness, and the worth of my future life." As for his infidelities, were they so reprehensible after all? "Concubinage is almost universal. If it was *morally* wrong, why was it permitted to the pious men under the Old Testament? Why did our Saviour never say a word against it?"

As his life went on, however, the clouds grew thicker and more menacing, and the end was storm and darkness. The climax came with the death of his wife. Boswell found himself at the age of fifty alone in the world with embarrassed fortunes, a family of young children to bring up, and no sign that any of the "towering hopes" of his youth had been realized. Worse still, he had become by this time a confirmed drunkard. His self-reproaches were pitiable; his efforts at amendment never ceased; he took a vow of sobriety under "a venerable yew"; he swore a solemn oath that he would give up drinking altogether—that he would limit himself to four glasses of wine at dinner and a pint afterwards; but it was all in vain. His way of life grew more and more disorderly, humiliating, and miserable. If he had retired to Scotland, and lived economically on his estate, he might have retrieved his position; but that was what he could not do: he could not be out of London. His ambitions seemed to multiply with his misfortunes. He exchanged the Scotch bar for the English, and lost all his professional income at a blow. He had wild hopes of becoming a member of Parliament, if only he toadied Lord Lonsdale sufficiently; and Lord Lonsdale promised much, asked him to his castle, made a butt of him, hid his wig, was gravely concerned, and finally threw him off after "expressing himself in the most degrading manner in presence of a low man from Carlisle and one of his menial servants." Consolations now were few indeed. It was something, no doubt, to be able to go to Court. "I was the *great man* at the late drawing-room in a suit of imperial blue lined with rose-colored silk, and ornamented with rich gold-wrought buttons. What a motley scene is life!" And at Eton, where he was "carried to dine at the Fellows' table," it was pleasant enough to find that in spite of a Scotch education one could still make a creditable figure. "I had my classical quotations very ready." But these were fleeting gleams. "Your kindness to me," he burst out to Temple, in April, 1791, "fairly makes me shed tears. Alas, I fear that my constitutional melancholy, which returns in such dismal fits and is now aggravated by the loss of my valuable wife, must prevent me from any permanent felicity in this life. I snatch *gratifications;* but have no *comfort,* at least very little. . . . I get bad rest in the night, and then I brood over all my complaints—the *sickly mind* which I have had from my early years—the disappointment of my hopes of

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success in life—the irrevocable separation between me and that excellent woman who was my cousin, my friend, and my wife—the embarrassment of my affairs—the disadvantage to my children in having so wretched a father—nay, the want of *absolute certainty* of being happy after death, the *sure prospect* of which is *frightful*. No more of this."

The tragedy was closing; but it was only superficially a sordid one. Six weeks later the writer of these lines published, in two volumes quarto, the Life of Dr. Johnson. In reality, Boswell's spirit had never failed. With incredible persistence he had carried through the enormous task which he had set himself thirty years earlier. Everything else was gone. He was burnt down to the wick, but his work was there. It was the work of one whose appetite for life was insatiable—so insatiable that it proved in the end self-destructive. The same force which produced the Life of Johnson plunged its author into ruin and desperation. If Boswell had been capable of retiring to the country and economizing we should never have heard of him. It was Lord Lonsdale's butt who reached immortality.

LYTTON STRACHEY.

# Washington Notes

THE report comes to me from a quarter seldom mistaken, that the real force back of the Medill-McCormick effort to land a place of suitable dignity and importance, for as conspicuous a "lame duck" as the Senator from Illinois, is no less a person than Dwight Morrow. If such is the fact, there need be no more worry upon the part of Medill's friends. He will get what he wants. He very likely would have anyhow, but the Morrow friendship makes it certain. Probably he will go to Berlin—but the prediction is here made, with none save the friendliest personal feelings toward Senator McCormick, that wherever he goes, he will not be there six months before he will furnish the basis for eight column streamer lines in the American newspapers, and more or less embarrassment for at least two governments.

Not many persons in Washington know how close Herbert Hoover came to leaving the Cabinet, after the Warren-Kellogg appointments. Mr. Coolidge just caught him in time, and there was a night conference at the White House between the President and the Secretary of Commerce lasting nearly three hours. In the end, Hoover agreed to stay, but it took him two or three days to recover his usual urbanity. It seems perfectly clear that, as a result of a display of temper, he frightened the President into first offering him the Secretaryship of Agriculture, and, second, after his rather curt declination, into practically promising to name a Hoover choice for that position.

The net effect of the show-down is to give Hoover two positions in the Cabinet instead of one. It will enable him to dominate Agriculture as well as Commerce and will make him the most powerful Cabinet official we have had in Washington in a long time. It is unquestionably bitter medicine to certain farm leaders in Congress, to various factors in the Agricultural Department, and to some influential agricultural editors. Moreover, it leaves them impotent to fight. But there is a greater potentiality for good in the situation now than before. If it had been necessary, to keep him, Mr. Coolidge would have given him a third department.

I really feel sorry for Mr. Kellogg. The purpose of the "irreconcilables" in the Senate is so plainly to make life miserable for him that the friendliest thing that can be hoped is that the report is true he will hold the job only a few months and then give way to the clever and conceited Mr. Warren. The journalistic mouthpiece of the "irreconcilables," Colonel George Harvey, did not open the campaign with marked success. He was not in his happiest vein. The net effect of that blast in the Post, signed by the Colonel and captioned America Duped, was to draw from Mr. Coolidge the quiet comment that there seemed to be a great deal of "unfounded gossip" going on about the Paris Conference, and that senatorial fears of this Government contracting any "entangling alliance" are wholly unfounded. No further notice was taken of the Colonel's tocsin. It fell, in fact, rather humiliatingly flat, and left its author in the somewhat absurd position of being unable to infect any one with his own flaming excitement. However, the idea that the editorial marks a clean breach between Mr. Harvey and Mr. Coolidge such as came between Mr. Wilson and the Colonel, is completely unfounded. It is Colonel Harvey's business not to break this time—and he won't. His interest and his employer alike incline him toward conciliatory paths. As for Mr. Coolidge, he isn't the kind to initiate a break. They will ocntinue friends in their wintry, Vermont way.

Some time ago, I commented in this place upon the curious political phenomena presented by the support given the President by the Hearst press. When it is considered that Mr. Coolidge suits those "Interests" against which Mr. Hearst has battled for so many years, better than any President they ever had, the absurdity of the Hearst attitude is apparent and its mystery deepens. Recently, the Hearst papers have reached extremes of servile adulation of the Executive equalled only by the New York Herald-Tribune. That scintillating journal, not so long back, spoke of Mr. Coolidge as a second Lincoln. Not to be outdone, Mr. Brisbane, a few days ago, likened him to Napoleon. There isn't any use attempting to comment upon that sort of thing. Your pen runs away and laughs when you try. It leaves with you a question as to which is the more appalling, the absolute sincerity of the Herald-Tribune on the one hand, or the complete insincerity of the Hearst papers on the other. Both seem equally dreadful.

The new Secretary to the President—Mr. Sanders, of Indiana—appears already to have taken hold at the White House. The unfortunate Slemp has practically relinquished the reins and is easing himself out with the best possible grace. Before the formal change takes place, the fact may as well be stated that, though his personal relations may be more pleasant, Mr. Sanders is not going to be any more confidentially close to the President than was Mr. Slemp. The confidential man at the White House is "Ted" Clark. "Ted" Clark was at one time Secretary to the late Senator Murray Crane of Massachusetts. When Mr. Coolidge became Vice President, Clark had gone back into business in Boston. He was induced, I am told, by the worshipful Stearns to give up his job in that city and attach himself

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to Mr. Coolidge as Secretary. When Mr. Coolidge became President, Clark accompanied him to the White House and has been there ever since. He is the President's "personal" Secretary. No one has Mr. Coolidge's complete confidence. He is not the sort of man to have a real confidant, to whom he shows his soul. He might like to, but he is constitutionally incapable of opening up. However, to the extent he is able to confide in anyone, he confides in Clark. Clark is far more like one of the family than Slemp ever was or Sanders ever will be. Sanders, like Slemp, was chosen for Mr. Coolidge by others. So was Clark—but the personal relations and the personal acquaintance he has with Clark put the latter in a class by himself. Sanders will know what it is necessary for him to know. Clark will know all Sanders knows and a lot more. He is a useful, clever, experienced Boston politician, whose personal characteristics make him much more human and likable than any other Massachusetts man at the White House. It is a curious commentary on the President, that his personal as well as private Secretaries should both be selected on the recommendation of other people.

It seems clear to those who have analyzed the situation, that, whether he takes up the question of another Mellon tax bill in an extra session in September, or waits until the regular session in December, Mr. Coolidge is going to have almost as much trouble with his party in complete control as he did last session when the Progressives held the balance of power. The basis for this statement is the growth of sentiment favoring the publicity feature of the present law, and the tendency of certain Senators who opposed it last time to favor it now. This has been regarded by Mr. Mellon and Mr. Coolidge, and by a large number of their supporting newspapers and advisers, as the most obnoxious and indefensible feature of the law. It is to be repealed, it has been definitely promised, at the earliest possible moment. "All right," say certain Senators who have been taking stock up on the hill, "let's see them do it."

They are pretty firmly convinced that having once got these tax returns out in the sunlight, it is not possible to go back to the cellar darkness again.

Senator Butler, friend of the President, manager of his campaign, and his supposed mouthpiece in the Senate, denies to his colleagues there that he was consulted in the matter of the appointment of Charles B. Warren as Attorney-General, or knew anything about it. Mr. Butler admits, I am told, some guilty knowledge of the Kellogg selection but emphatically declares he knew nothing of Warren. Some of Mr. Butler's senatorial colleagues were anxious to pin responsibility on him, and are disappointed at their inability to find someone upon whom they could spill their wrath. If anything, the Warren appointment is more unpopular in the Senate than that of Kellogg. They will, of course, both be confirmed. No one can recall that the Senate ever rejected a Cabinet selection by the President. It is universally conceded the Executive has the right to select his own official family, and their submission to the Senate is merely a form. If it were not for this unbroken and accepted tradition neither one of these Coolidge choices would be confirmed. No one doubts that.

T. R. B.

Washington.

# *CORRESPONDENCE*

## Genesis versus Evolution

SIR: The Science League of America announces prizes for the best reasons for teaching in the schools evolution rather than Genesis as an explanation of the origin of the earth and of man.

The first prize is $50, the second $35, the third $15, and three fourth prizes of a year's paid-up membership in the Science League of America. These are donated by The Arbitrator, a monthly digest of news, New York City.

At present the Book of Genesis is taught in some public schools and not in others. Evolution likewise is taught in some schools and not in others. Fundamentalists are endeavoring to bar the teaching of evolution and to introduce the Book of Genesis everywhere.

The judges will be three well-known writers—James Rorty, Arthur Preston Hankins and Miriam Allen de Ford.

Essays must be limited to 500 words and be mailed on or before March 1, 1925, addressed to Maynard Shipley, President, Science League of America, 618 Liberty Bank Building, San Francisco, California. Mark the envelope "Prize Contest R." No manuscripts will be returned.

C. T. BIRON,
Secretary-Treasurer, the Science League of America.

San Francisco, Calif.

## Can the Democrats Come Back?

SIR: In your issue of January 14 you say that though La Follette polled only half as large a vote as did Roosevelt in 1912, the Democratic party fared no better. This assertion needs some analysis. I accept your division of the country into three regions: the solid South, the West in thirteen of whose states La Follette was second, and the East where Mr. Davis polled approximately twice as many votes as did La Follette. Let us consider the West. The Democrats, as everyone knew, were sadly handicapped by lack of funds. It would have been the height of political folly for them to have spread out their efforts in the less promising regions, when already they could not do themselves justice in what they did attempt. Furthermore, as La Follette had an initial advantage in the West, a more aggressive campaign there would simply have divided the opposition and insured the states going Republican—as indeed they did anyhow. During the campaign the Republicans repeatedly charged, and just before the election the Democrats practically admitted, that the latter were deliberately trying to swing their vote in this region to La Follette. Hence the Democratic vote in the West was not a fair indication of its strength.

Nor was the case essentially different in the East. Here the Republicans made their most effective use of their one issue: to keep the election out of a Congress over which Coolidge had no control. Every political expert is agreed that the Republicans played this card with masterly skill, which can only mean that hundreds of thousands were induced to vote for Coolidge in spite of a real preference for Mr. Davis. So in the East as well, the actual Democratic vote was far less than it normally would have been. Is it therefore quite fair to argue from the Democratic vote in 1924 that the Democrats can never regain the position they had from 1912 to 1920?

LOCKWOOD MYRICK, JR.

Cambridge, Mass.

## A Labor Temple School Dinner

SIR: Will you extend to Labor Temple the courtesy of your columns to permit us to invite your readers to the annual dinner of Labor Temple School, 7 p. m., February 3, at the Aldine Club, 200 Fifth Avenue? The speakers will be Harry Emerson Fosdick, Stephen S. Wise, Heywood Broun, John Cowper Powys, A. J. Muste, Edmund B. Chaffee, and Will Durant.

WILL DURANT.

New York, N. Y.

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# Shadows of Conrad

*Joseph Conrad: A Personal Remembrance, by Ford Madox Ford (Ford Madox Hueffer). Boston: Little Brown and Company. $2.50.*

*Hommage à Joseph Conrad (Fifteen articles by French and English authors). Paris: La Nouvelle Revue Française. 4 fr. 50.*

*The Nature of a Crime, by Joseph Conrad and Ford Madox Ford (Ford Madox Hueffer). New York: Doubleday, Page and Company. $2.50.*

*The Shorter Tales of Joseph Conrad. New York: Doubleday, Page and Company. $5.*

DO you remember, as a child, the first time you discovered that if you ran quickly enough past a board fence the landscape behind it would become visible through the cracks? At a walk, nothing could be seen but the broad planks, with fragmentary, tantalizing slits of scenery; at a run, the fence tended to disappear in favor of a flickering beyond. Mr. Ford Madox Ford (Hueffer) is the fence, and his book is a row of boards, with occasional slits through which Joseph Conrad might emerge for a reader who could keep up a Paavo Nurmi pace for 267 pages. Not being so gifted, we must glue our eyes to the cracks, glean what we can, feel cheated at the narrow prospect, and therefore pound revengefully upon the fence.

Mr. Ford knew Conrad well. They were neighbors for years, they collaborated upon three novels, the first of them (Romance) at Conrad's own suggestion. And so what Mr. Ford has to say revolves perpetually upon that collaboration, and the little which seems real about Conrad is sparks thrown off by the grinding of this mutual wheel. Mr. Ford enjoyed the collaboration, he takes pleasure in calling repeated attention to the obvious superiority of Conrad's contribution to it, he calls, indeed, so much more attention to his own inferiority that one becomes suspicious that he does so mainly because it is his own. Mr. Ford amiably recalls "his wallowing in his own juvenile prose and his own deadly sentences," and how Conrad's share of the writing "crepitated from the emasculated prose like firecrackers among ladies' skirts." Yet the ladies' skirts come in for rather more quotation than the firecrackers. So much so that this "biography which is a novel" of Joseph Conrad seems to be, before one is through, really an excuse made by Mr. Ford for writing about himself.

There is here a peculiarly maddening variety of conceit, a comfortable security about oneself which cannot see that the very excess of space devoted to one's own imperfections in a book supposedly about another great man is the acme of self-esteem. Irritation increases every time Mr. Ford refers to himself as "the writer," a discreet indirection which somehow calls attention to the ego ten times more than downright, simple I. Irritation is fed, too, by such confessions as that Mr. Ford "can write like the late Mr. Ruskin or like the late Charles Garvice, at will," by his fulsome and repeated chronicling of the fact that Conrad held Mr. Ford's opening a paragraph "Excellency, a few goats . . . " to be "sheer genius." "What then," asks Mr. Ford, "attracted Conrad to this farrago of nonsense? . . . it may have been affection; Conrad may really have had an affection for the writer. Yet it can hardly have been that. . . ."

Are we always to believe Mr. Ford? On one page he records Conrad as saying that the first words of English he ever heard were "We've fought the Bear before, and so we will again, the Russians shall not have Constantinople," on another these words have become "Eggs and bacon or marmalade?" while Conrad himself has fixed quite other words in our minds in an unforgettable passage. But usually Mr. Ford is never so definite as this. One becomes subtly, gradually mistrustful, and confidence is not increased by his own prefatory admission that the book is a "novel, not a monograph . . . an impression." He "believes no man would care—or dare—to impugn the truth of the impression as a whole." There is no reason to doubt that Mr. Ford has "scrupulously" given us his own impression. The point is that the view of another man seen so consistently through the flesh of one's own ego cannot be importantly true.

In sharp contrast to the Boswellian method, this "novel" applies to biography a technique borrowed from the kneading of dough. Mr. Ford is one color of dough, Conrad another, and the master-mixer has done so thorough a job in kneading the two together that Conrad appears only as pale inextricable streaks in a mass of Ford. Conrad is the medium—the subject remains Ford Madox Ford. Ford is the departure, right of way, and destination. Conrad is only stations on the way. The voyage is in quest of Conrad, but the S. S. Ford, a ship with its rudder lashed tight to starboard, forever returns upon itself in unballasted circumnavigations.

And yet . . . . and yet if we run quickly enough past the cracks in the fence we do get glimpses of a very original, remarkable, lovable Conrad; we do get snatches, at more than second hand, of his wandering steadfast life. We catch a brief sight of Conrad trying to correct proofs in a train, which jolted so badly that he "got down on the floor of the carriage and lying on his stomach went on writing." We meet him face to face suddenly for the first time.

> When you had really secured his attention he would insert a monocle into his right eye and scrutinize your face from very near as a watchmaker looks into the works of a watch. He entered a room with his head held high, rather stiffly and with a haughty manner, moving his head once semicircularly. In this one movement he had expressed to himself the room and its contents, his haughtiness was due to his determination to master that room, not to dominate its occupants, his chief passion being the realization of aspects to himself.

And we hear fragments of a great biography. Born in Poland just before her revolution . . . Exiled with his mother at the age of eight or nine . . . Devoured Marryat and Fenimore Cooper, alone, "in the candlelight of an immense, stately library, with busts on white plinths." . . . From a window in Venice, while making the Grand Tour, he saw his first ship, a British schooner . . . Shortly reappeared as a Lieutenant de Torpilleurs de la Marine Militaire Française . . . Witnessed bombardment of a South American town . . . engaged in gun-running during the Carlist war, on the Tremolino . . . landed at Marseilles and cabled his uncle to come and pay his debts . . . Tried to float a gold-mine stock company . . . and collaborated in three novels with Ford Madox Ford (Hueffer).

One of those collaborations, The Nature of a Crime, has just been republished here. It is difficult, mannered, obscure, and rather soft stuff, impossible to finish.

The Nouvelle Revue Française, according to its admirable custom upon the death of the great, has published a

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collection of pieces on or about Conrad ranging from testimonials to criticism, from the warm dignity of records of personal loss to casual notes from those who met him, talked with him, only two or three times. In this collection are included translations of articles by Galsworthy, R. B. Cunningham Graham and Richard Curle's brief. The latter, a simple, direct account, which I wish Mr. Ford would read, brings Conrad singularly near to us; it is probably the most moving and unpreoccupied picture of the man at close range that we have. As Curle's brief sentences fall, we know that the minutes are falling too, and that we must listen hard to every one of Conrad's words, for the turn of the next page may bring the last of all. Particularly moving, for some simple, inexplicable reason, is the arrival of the telegram announcing the death of Lady Colvin, a dear friend of Conrad's, not long before his own. Mrs. Conrad received the telegram.

> Conrad called out: "Who is the telegram from?" He had heard the bell ring. "It's about Lady Colvin," answered his wife. "Is she better?" "No, not better," she replied. Conrad said nothing more.

A few hours later he himself was dead.

One of the chroniclers in this collection, H. R. Lenormand, whom New Yorkers may remember as the author of The Failures, given last year at the Theatre Guild, recounts a few hours' talk with Conrad in Corsica. "He was thinking of death, and no longer hoped to write the novel which was the reason for his journey to Corsica." "I can't find the words," Conrad said, "which correspond to my thoughts. I am never sure of what I am affirming. I am *stupid!*" And later: "I find myself too conscious; I have lost all innocence." A singular turn to the conversation began when Conrad remarked that he had always been much interested in the relationship of father and daughter. Lenormand took up this trail, with perhaps more zest for the chase than sensitiveness for his companion; suggested the possibility in Almayer of an unwitting passion for his daughter, "an incestuous tenderness hiding behind a father's love." When carefully, and in detail, he reminded Conrad of the passage which lent color to this interpretation, "Conrad became silent, visibly embarrassed, and changed the subject." Lenormand, nothing daunted, began to burrow in the neurotic background and the true springs of action of Lord Jim. Conrad again became agitated: "I do not want to go to the bottom of things. I want to think of reality as something crude and rough over which I let my fingers travel. Nothing more." Lenormand lent him some translations of Freud, for whom Conrad had "an ironical contempt," and they were returned unread. This leads Lenormand to a remark for the profundity of which one forgives his rather too persevering attempt to trouble the depths of Conrad's mind:

> So was revealed to me the sense of shame, the modesty, the reticence of the artist before his work, and the wisdom of the creator who resolves once and for all not to force the secrets of his creations.

Conrad knew their secrets, but he would not force them; himself a master of the soul's intricacies, its invisible defeats, secret rust, unrevealed self-torture, he found in Dostoevsky, where all these are plainly made known, something so profoundly antipathic that he described it as "an unbearably bad smell."

A man so respectful of his creatures' secrets might have been expected to speak unwillingly of himself. André Gide notes that "a sort of shame, of disaffection for himself, held back and prevented his confidences." And to someone who asked for self-examination he answered, with that grand tragic fortitude and humility which come so simply from his lips, which he wrote so simply into the lives of his characters: "My books have cost me too much for me to love them."

After all these shadows, imperfect, pretentious as many of them are, interesting though some of them may be, it is a relief to turn to the reality. What in life he most cared about is in his books, and there too is his biography. though an accurate, possibly "significant" biography will of course sooner or later be dished up of those less relevant fragments which were the factual history, the framework, the skeleton of his own life. The blood and tears and flesh are in the books, in those men he brought to full life without betraying their secrets. Here in one volume are Falk, Youth, Typhoon, to stand beside and never be excelled by what other men may dig up about the facts of his existence.

Spare him! For biography, at its worst, at its mediocre level best, is archæology, the reconstituting of a tiger from its posthumous teeth and remembered stripes, and a long tunneling after forgotten secrets. To Conrad, what was inside a man was secret, inviolable, and actions betraying of themselves the secrets, hinting at them, were the novelist's only lawful prey.

ROBERT LITTELL.

# Hypothesis and Prejudice

*The Character of Races, by Ellsworth Huntington. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $5.*

*Racial Realities in Europe, by Lothrop Stoddard. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.*

FEW things are more depressing than the present growth of popular science. In the old days people had their prejudices: the Anglo-Indian, for example, disliking the Brahmin, expressed his contempt for all "niggers," and left it at that. Nowdays men like Mr. Lothrop Stoddard encourage him to trick out his human weakness in a scientific vocabulary, with words like race, Nordic, dolicocephalic and so forth, until to race prejudice is added the still more insidious horror of intellectual snobbery.

The plain man, who is no fool, knows that there is such a thing as race inheritance, he recognizes the existence of geographical and climatic environment, and, after a moment's thought, he sees that the things men do and the machinery they make to do them are a third factor. He admits his ignorance, calls these three, x, y and z and says that x + y + z=human history. Not so the scientists: Mr. Stoddard, having read Gobineau and not liking "dagoes," says "let the value of y and z approach 0, then x, racial inheritance, is human history." Mr. Huntington, having been to Central Asia and seen how Lop Nor has dried up and agreeing with the French geographers like M. Desmoulins, says, "let x and z approach 0, then y, geographical and climatic environment, is human history." Finally all those who have once read Marx and had their mental development forthwith arrested say, "let x and y equal 0, then z, economic institutions, is human history." The plain man is not wise enough to say, "as far as practical application is concerned, let us have an intellectual moratorium, until some mathematician teaches these people that their method of solving equations cannot be permitted"; instead,

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he accepts any theory from which he can deduce anything satisfactory to his emotions: and in the present instance the blond beast becomes the Nordic neo-Viking and Ellis Island is over-populated with olive-complexioned derelicts.

Professor Huntington's book shows the intellectual honesty which we expect from him: criticism of it will be not criticism of motive but rather of method. "Presumably" and "perhaps" appear every ten lines and he readily admits that much that he writes is inconclusive. His main thesis is that natural selection working under the stress of over-population and migration is responsible for those phenomenal outbursts of culture familiar to us from the study of Greece, Cambodia, Yucatan, Iceland and also for the evolution of culture in general. Behind these causes lie other causes such as climatic change which involve the upset of the balance between man and his environment. As an indication of his method we may take that part of the book which deals with Mr. Stoddard's subject: thereby making it possible to contrast the two writers in their conclusions and their reasoning. A series of maps have been designed to correlate the degree of civilization, the incidence of eminent men, the distribution of health and of "climatic energy" among the various European countries. The maps shaded and graded to show maxima and minima are strikingly alike, giving the highest claim to respect, as it were, to the regions surrounding the North Sea. From this Dr. Huntington concludes that culture rests upon climatic conditions and not upon racial factors. Now what sort of evidence does he use to bring about his result?

How does he produce a map of the distribution of civilization? Having defined the aims of European civilization as a high degree of initiative, of ability to dominate nature, of the capacity to form new ideas, of self-control, honesty and morality, of power of self-expression in art and literature, "and other similar qualities," he asked fifty-four eminent men from China to Missouri to mark the various countries with from one to ten marks, according to their claim to these qualities. Out of the massed replies he makes his map.

How does he gauge the incidence of eminent people? He takes the 8600 biographies of Europeans born since 1600 and appearing in the pages of the Encyclopedia Britannica, divides them into groups as scientists, religious or philosophical workers, artists or writers, historians, soldiers or politicians: he grades the countries by the percentage to the whole of their eminent men which belongs to each one of these groups, thus producing five maps out of which we learn such facts as that 15 percent of Switzerland's great men were religious and only 3 percent of Sweden's, that 48 percent of Spain's were artistic or literary and 29 percent of France's military. The map of health distribution in Europe takes the national death rates as a criterion and is shaded to match the others. Last and strangest of all is the map of the distribution of climatic energy. This is "based on the way in which people's work, both physical and mental, varies from day to day and season to season among people of European origin in the United States." The amount of work done by piece-workers and students on days with different kinds of weather is estimated, and "on this basis, knowing the average monthly conditions of the weather in each part of Europe, it has been possible to construct a map of climatic energy."

Now surely this is the sort of thing which causes the enemies of the anthropological sciences to blaspheme. The celebrated remark of the physicist: "of course besides mathematics, physics and chemistry, there is botany and the other occult sciences" was a little hard on the botanist, and even he can protest from a lofty pedestal against so inexact a scientific procedure as the above. Everybody knows that a healthy climate and the presence of eminent men both have some connection with a high state of culture: but it is hard to be impressed by the present method of proving it.

Take the map of "climatic energy"; let us believe that the effect of a rainy day on a student's marks can be distinguished from the effect of how he slept the night before, of whether he ate at automat or Astor, of his being in love, of the professor's temper, and the effect of the rain on this not least; let us believe all this by an act of faith, which may be justifiable; can we really go even further and believe that the same degree of dampness and cold in the Outer Hebrides or Naples will have the same effect as in New York? Or take the map of health distribution: if it is accurate, then the east end of London is healthier than the valleys of the Pyrenees, the number of people who die is a just measure of the energy of those left alive, and because a fresh breeze kills off wheezy octogenarians it cannot blow new life into younger men and women.

Beyond this, the 8600 men in the Encyclopedia Britannica are to be accepted as a just measure of civilization, and they owe their greatness to fresh air and halcyon days and not to educational systems, social opportunity or a rapid flow of intellectual currency.

So much for theoretical objections: in practice the maps prove that Sweden is more noteworthy for military genius than France, that England is more religious than Ireland, that Portugal is more concerned with literature and art in comparison with other cultural activities than France or Germany; and, best joke of all, that Poplar and Limehouse in London have more "climatic energy" than the villages of the Apennines. Summing up his maps the author says that they all show the same distribution of maxima and minima and that "the relation can be of only one kind. No one of the other three maps can have any effect on the map of climatic energy. That depends on nature, not man. Therefore it must be the foundation. Apparently climate influences health and energy, and these in turn influence civilization. The reverse is also true, for the stage of civilization has a great effect upon health." Here we have in brief the three dangers against which anthropological sciences have to contend: first, fallacy, the map of climatic energy far from depending on nature is a superb example of a man-made object as the evidence upon which it is constructed proves; second, platitude, we knew without this superadded hyperbole that climate influences health and therefore civilization; third, muddle, "the reverse is also true"—what can be done with a science whose data are always cause and effect alternately!

Nevertheless these criticisms must not be construed into a condemnation of the book: a great deal of thought and information has been packed into it with Dr. Huntington's usual clear style and interesting detail. Further, any one who has read the romances standing to the credit of Mr. Stoddard's name will do well to read the chapters dealing with Warlike Normans and Peaceful Icelanders and The Selection of Modern Americans.

No one would think of criticizing Mr. Stoddard's scientific method, for he has none. He seems to believe that there are whole groups of people who conform to a pure race type: "The true Nordic is tall and blond, with a long head, blue or gray eyes, and a fair skin. The true Mediter-

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ranean is short statured, slenderly built, long-headed like the Nordic, but dark-complexioned, with black hair and eyes and a skin inclined to be swarthy. The pure-blooded Alpine is also dark-complexioned, but differs from both the other races in being round-skulled." That in England, for example, where we are all mongrels, it would be hard to find individuals having all Nordic features, does not concern him any more than that no small village ever could be found without examples of every one of these characteristics: England is Nordic and in consequence England—that is all Mr. Stoddard knows and needs to know. In this spirit he rushes round Europe looking up "racial realities": let us follow him to Spain.

> No people today displays more typically Mediterranean characteristics than does the Spanish . . . The Spanish people is probably the purest Mediterranean stock now in existence, as is well shown by the Spanish temperament, which is just about what we might expect from a study of Spain's racial makeup.

Now anyone who knows Spain from residence there could tell Mr. Stoddard that his "Spanish temperament" is not a scientific unity at all; that the average man in Barcelona is as different from the average man in Madrid as could well be imagined. Racially they are the same, culturally, linguistically, economically they are poles apart. Why does the Catalan hate the Castilian? Because they are the same racially? No more than if they happened to be racially different. They hate one another because Barcelona is commercial and Madrid feudal and, as Dr. Huntington would point out, they have not blended largely because of the geographical nature of mountainous, divided Spain. Spanish contemporary politics are a living negation of the all-importance of race.

From the chapter on Germany we learn that the War was lost by the Germans largely because they did not realize that far from being any longer Nordic they had gradually become Alpine. Here too we read of how in Germany science fell from the paths of virtue:

> They did not stop to consider how times had changed; how other nations had developed, and how they themselves might differ from the Germans of former days. Here is where a genuine understanding of racial realities might have helped to clear their eyes, for it was during the closing years of the nineteenth century that knowledge of racial matters became definite and the importance of biology—of science of race—began to be appreciated. Unhappily, this new science was, in Germany, quickly perverted into a weapon of jingo propaganda. A powerful group of national-imperialists, headed by popular writers like Houston Stewart Chamberlain seized upon biology and prostituted it to their own ends. . . .

Apparently Mr. Stoddard objects merely to the Germans imagining that they really were "blond beasts"; had they been Nordics all would have been well with Houston Stewart Chamberlain. Scientists, however, who hold no brief for any one race may be tempted to give Mr. Stoddard a tu quoque to his accusation of Germain biologists.

JOHN LANGDON-DAVIES.

# The Illth of Nations

*The Education of the Consumer, by Henry Harap. New York: The Macmillan Company. $2.*

J. A. HOBSON once observed that half the total field of economics has never been explored. Libraries have been written on the arts of production, but the arts of consumption have remained largely a mystery. After the sale was made, the package safely under the buyer's arm, research stopped, the end had been reached. But in truth, from another point of view, such is only the beginning. How fares the contents of the package in the family parlor, on the family back, in the family stomach? What is the worth and utility of the 30 or 40 billions of goods which are consumed in this republic annually? Into this jungle Mr. Harap enters, and his progress is marked by a great clearing and a great light. He tips the economic structure on end and looks at it from what might be called the housewife's point of view. Here comes a stream of stuff into her house. She buys it from habit or from the pressure of advertising, or because she wants to keep up with her neighbors. Suppose we examine these articles one by one, not in the light of habit or advertising or competitive snobbery, but in the light of biological and human values.

This is Mr. Harap's job—"an attempt to analyze for educational guidance the elements of an effective relation between man and his economic environment as it expresses itself in the consumption of food, shelter, fuel and clothing." The book is designed primarily for teachers, but it is difficult to see how any intelligent consumer—woman or man—can fail to find it enormously interesting. We also recommend it specifically and particularly to the learned economists as an antidote to too much business cycles, bank clearings, and productivity theories of wages. Here if you please is the tangible material that all the hullabaloo of work, wages, money, and exchange is about. Here if anywhere is the target at which production aims. Here is the ultimate meaning of economic activity if it is to have any meaning at all.

There are six main subjects in Mr. Harap's analysis: food, housing, household materials, household skills, fuel, clothing. Each shows, so far as data are available, total consumption considering the nation as one great family, including the more important classes and varieties. First the sum total of the packages, and then a stripping of wrappers, a breaking of strings, and a blunt and specific analysis of what the packages contain, for weal or for woe. Wealth, Ruskin has defined as those goods and services which make for human well-being. Against them he marks off "illth"—the products of the adulterator, the jerry-builder, the shoddy-maker. In the Education of the Consumer we have perhaps the most comprehensive investigation of illth ever undertaken. And if the whole story is not there, it is only because the laws of libel, as currently interpreted, have a tenderer eye for the vested rights of the adulterator than for the ultimate effect of his products upon the consumer. Caveat emptor is not a principle to be trifled with, but Mr. Harap goes as far as one might dare to hope.

> Commercial houses are daily inundating the public markets with their wares. Commerce is utilizing a powerful educational force in the form of advertising, of the accuracy of which there is no adequate assurance. The school must act as a check on the questionable commercial products used in food consumption.

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A Galahad indeed is one who braves the hope and glory of America, the National Advertiser, and looks with such a dubious eye upon the Great Truth Movement.

Mahogany and walnut are used in about 3 percent of the furniture made in America, while birch and gum are used in 36 percent. "We should expect that some similar proportion should appear in advertisements. The facts, however, are startling. An analysis of a month's advertisements in the New York Globe, shows that mahogany is advertised 149 times, walnut is advertised 69 times, birch with mahogany finish is mentioned twice, and gum wood with walnut finish is mentioned three times. It was plain from these advertisements that they were designed deliberately to mislead the purchaser or to exploit his ignorance of furniture woods. Only rarely was it clear whether mahogany meant solid mahogany, veneered mahogany, or a mahogany finish on birch wood."

And again: "The fact is that the low-income families, which are most in need of purchasing a good grade of durable furniture, are buying furniture which, in the long run, is most expensive."

Fillers and substitute pigments in ready mixed paint.

Malleable cast-iron tools "often sold as steel."

Leather bags marked genuine leather or genuine cowhide are often but a thin layer of split leather.

Nine-tenths of all "leather-covered furniture" is upholstered with leather cloth, which is a cloth base coated with celluloid upon which is pressed a leather grain. Or it may be paper and rubber.

"Palm oil which we are led to believe is a basic element in a popular American soap, is used only to a small degree in American manufacture. The same is true of olive oil which is hinted at in the trade name of this same soap. Palm kernel oil, which may be implied in the name here discussed, is used to a limited extent, but makes an inferior soap.'

The chief adulterant for fat and oil in soap is sodium silicate, and taking the country as a whole more is used than all the vegetable oils combined, and from half to three quarters as much as all animal fat and grease.

And so on and so on.

But in truth, Mr. Harap's thesis is bigger than the detection of illth. He tells us of buying habits—Boston demanding brown eggs, and New York white—of the margin by which the country is underhoused, the percentages of overcrowding, city by city, the total consumption of food and how high cost fats and meats are consumed in excess of the standard, and low cost legumes and potatoes underconsumed, and how a study of 350 orders of food in 46 New York restaurants found the cost of 2,500 calories ranging from 25 cents to $14. He tells of what fancy packages cost us—we pay 156 percent more per pound for macaroni in the package than in bulk, 80 percent more for cocoa and 55 percent more for rolled oats. The average excess for 11 food staples is 54.01 percent. And he tells us that the efficiency of the coal range for domestic cooking is about 2.5 percent!

In brief, a beautiful book; learned, careful, well documented, dry enough as to style if you please, but for those who read it with imagination, challenging and exciting beyond computation. Into the Congo of economics it goes, and where there lay the dusk of an impenetrable forest, now lies light and a broad trail.

STUART CHASE.

# Five Novels

*The Matriarch, by G. B. Stern. New York: Alfred A. Knopf. $2.50.*

MISS STERN could have prepared no greater surprise for her readers than her change from the light comedy of The China Shop and The Back Seat to this history of the Rakonitz family with its allied houses of Czelovar and Bettelheim, from the year of Austerlitz to 1925. It is a genuine family novel; in scope, though not in dimensions, resembling Thomas Mann's Buddenbrooks, Couperus's Small Souls series, and Mrs. Norris's Certain People of Importance; but with this difference, that whereas in these books the families remain anchored in Lübeck, The Hague, or San Francisco, the Rakonitzes are cosmopolitan. They flourished in the final period of the scattering of the Jews, when the laws of the pale were relaxed over central Europe, and the family was free to send its shoots from the original Pressburg to Vienna, to Constantinople, to Paris, London, and San Remo, and to disperse its blood widely through gentile veins. Representing the principle of tribal unity against such centrifugal forces is Anastasia, born 1835 in the third generation from Pressburg and the fourth remove, by way of Vienna and Paris to London. She is the dominating figure in the book, the matriarch, resplendent as Semiramis on the throne of the family in its prosperity and indomitable in its ruin. One terrible error Anastasia made in marrying her first cousin, and weakening the family stock. Her five children are all poor stuff. But among her grandchildren she has a successor who preserves the family tradition while revolting against the despotism of the matriarch. This is Antoinette, Toni, born 1894, a charming and unforgettable figure.

Although Anastasia is the titular heroine, the real hero is the family. To follow the elusive chronicle the reader must have frequent recourse to the genealogical table of over a hundred persons—cells in one organism. That in spite of the necessity of this apparatus the book retains the vitality of fiction is much but not all. For The Matriarch is more than fiction—it is a social record. It is not "a new kind of novel" or "an amazing piece of literary audacity" to quote the exceptionally silly comment of the London Times, but it is a solid, vigorous and important book whose merit needs no exaggerated praise.

*Mariposa, by Henry Baerlein. New York: Boni and Liveright. $2.*

MARIPOSA has some of the elements which made The House of the Fighting Cocks a noteworthy book, but in rather weak solution. A Spanish girl, dancing in her native Seville, attracts the attention of an impresario, and with her mother is transferred to England, where the contrast between her views of life and love and the background of conventional English character and custom gives to her narrative a thin but sustained note of humor. With Spanish coloring instead of Chinese, Mariposa suggests the naive irony of Ernest Bramah's Kai Lun.

*David Blaize of King's, by E. F. Benson. New York: George H. Doran Company. $2.*

MR. BENSON has followed the well known example of Thomas Hughes in carrying his hero forward from boyhood to school and then to the university. David Blaize and his friends suggest, however, not Tom Brown

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but Michael Fane. David's First Year at Cambridge is narrated in almost unbroken talk, in the key of Sinister Street. The dominant theme of his experience is the friendship of young men, which Mr. Benson has already touched illuminatingly in Our Family Affairs. One tradition of the English university novel Mr. Benson has admirably kept. He has given literally speaking likenesses of the academic celebrities of the day with delightful spirit and humor. The incredible Oscar Browning (O. B.), with his equal joy in celebrities and undergraduates, appears as A. G. and the guileless J. E. Nixon, with his passion for singing catches, as Crowfoot.

*The Innocents, by Henry Kitchell Webster. Indianapolis: The Bobbs Merrill Company. $2.*

THE atmosphere in which Edward Patterson grows up is very different from that which surrounds David Blaize. Instead of cricket, rugger, glee and catch singing, debating, conversation and ragging, we have solenoids and heterodynes, hook-ups and girls, for Edward Patterson lives near Lake Michigan, is a radio fan, and although out of high school without a diploma, is already well on his way to successful invention and marriage into one of the best families. The serious aspect of the book is that in which it treats the familiar motive of parents and children, and again one has to notice Mr. Webster's simple directness as compared with the sophistication with which his European contemporaries handle the theme. We are still a young people west of the Hudson, and it is always pleasant to have Mr. Tarkington and Mr. Webster remind us of the fact.

*The Fabric of the Loom, by Mary S. Watts. New York: The Macmillan Company. $2.50.*

THIS is also a story of a young world, and Mrs. Watts is amply aware of the fact. She adopts the device, familiar in Henry James and Mrs. Wharton, of repatriated Americans, in this case a mother and daughter, to whom the mores of the older and younger sets of an American city appear in the emphasis of contrasts with their European experience. As always, Mrs. Watts builds a firm and logical structure, but in this case the detail of incident is not striking nor is the coloring of the background distinctive. The combination of tea and dance, woman's club and country club, good works and philandering which make the pattern of the fabric, might be woven on the loom of any city in the Middle West.

ROBERT MORSS LOVETT.

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# The Learned Societies

## Educational Supplement

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## To Understand the Universe

TO understand the universe! Though almost inaudible amid thunder and small talk, that ancient prayer was omnipresent at the holiday meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science at Washington. It is not, to be sure, the American Association for the Understanding of the Universe, or even the understanding of science. Hence the 1,783 papers that were read were chiefly to stage the year's exhibition of new facts. The plane quintic with five cusps was allowed ten minutes, as was the effect of the nematode, Ascaridia Perspicillum, on the blood-sugar content of chickens. With an audience of the highest I. Q., assembled from afar, some twenty simultaneous performances were run off at more than vaudeville speed and usually with less than vaudeville participation by the audience. Fact strove with fact for attention, but there were a few stellar acts in which facts did not count, and which aimed at understanding.

To the theoretical physicist the process of understanding is the logical reasoning by which the phenomena of nature may be deduced as consequences of certain hypotheses which are accepted without further inquiry. The physicist has always been concerned with the phenomena and the mathematician with reasoning. They have left the hypotheses to the philosopher and have usually forgotten their existence. Thus when Galileo discussed the possibility of an eighth planet Francesco Sizzi remonstrated, in all seriousness, that such a thing was unthinkable. Were there not seven metals and only seven; had there not since before classical times been seven days in the week; and were there not seven windows in the human face? Seven is a basic number. The structure of the universe, the harmony of the spheres would be ruined by the admission of an eighth. The reasonableness of the argument is obvious, once we grant that the criteria of reasonableness are not within the physicist's ken.

Nowadays comes the quantum theory, which is unreasonable on the basis of "classical electrodynamics,"—classical, hence reasonable, as was the number seven. And so too, Einstein. "The most revolutionary aspect of Einstein's gravitational theory," says Professor W. F. G. Swann, of Yale, from whose paper this discussion is taken, "is its substitution of force action in opposition to kinetic reaction as a starting point in our thinking, the properties of a mathematical curve as a more fit thing in which to find a representation of nature's laws. It is not a question of one method being right and the other wrong, but a clear realization that neither has any claim to ultimate fundamentality other than that which its simplicity implies." The sun does not "attract" the earth perhaps, in spite of simplicity and reasonableness grown from long familiarity, but the earth takes its path because it is the simplest, space being of the shape it is. Take it or leave it, until the cosmic page finds the philosopher to tell you what, in the mountainous phrase, is reasonable in ultimate fundamentality.

Take the ancient figure of a man going from A to E, as they say in mathematics. At B he encounters a crater within which, in the direct line of his travel, sits the house H. A rough-looking crater—so at B, on its edge, he begins

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to travel sidewise, going partly round the crater, through F, emerging to level ground at D, on the edge of the crater just opposite his entering point; and on he goes to E. It's all very reasonable when you know about the crater. Now suppose, says the professor of physics, that you are in an aeroplane and do not see the crater, never heard of such a thing. The simple path becomes a phenomenon, for in all reasonableness the man should go straight ahead through the house and on through D; that is, his path should be ABHDE instead of ABFDE. Understand it if you can. Obviously something repels him from the house. A man with a hose perhaps, who compels keeping a certain distance. It is no longer simple but it is reasonable. You can calculate the size of the hose, the power behind it, the aim of the hoseman; and the hose assumes the aspect of reality. But I question it by virtue of certain actions of the man. Nothing daunted, you elaborate the hose. It has a special nozzle now, its elevation changes the firing range, perhaps it assumes a few boomerang tricks, until you account for the phenomena. If I still disbelieve and talk of the configuration of the space to be travelled you call me unreasonable. You forget the primary purpose of devising the hose and are unable to conceive the phenomena without it; its reality is unquestionable to you. It becomes a choice of which is the more reasonable basis. Both are in accord with "certain hypotheses which are accepted without further inquiry." And before such a choice of hypotheses physics must halt.

The theory of gravitation is in just the position of the hose today. The new hypothesis is being rapidly developed but each new deduction makes only more difficult the choice of a base. We lack criteria of reasonableness. We accept implicitly a few axioms. It is reasonable, for example, that the simpler of two explanations is the more correct. Philosophers have wrestled with that to no good, or at least to no truth. Similarly we assume that action at a distance, without at least "strain in the medium" to make physical connection, is unreasonable. The uniformity of velocity for any isolated body is another instance which in itself offends simplicity. On such foundations is physics built. The present decade at least recognizes the situation though it cannot analyze it further.

The vigor of the physical thought today is in the elaboration of other basic hypotheses quite irrespective of reasonableness. Professor A. C. Lunn of the University of Chicago presented such a reinterpretation on the basis of an Einsteinized Coulomb's law. Much will be heard of it after its publication under the title Relativity, the Quantum Phenomena and a Kinematic Geometry of Matter and Radiation. Here time is given its fundamental value, as in Einstein's work, and a time-lattice is constructed on the basis of spectral frequencies just as our space-lattice is based on the orderly arrangement of molecules in crystals.

A generation ago physics underwent a similar expansion but it was based wholly on new facts. Henry Adams has described the consternation caused by Roentgen's almost accidental discovery of X-rays and the subsequent revelations of radium in the hands of the Curies. Physics had been placid, its vitality spent, its problems apparently solved except for refinements of measurements. Suddenly quite unreasonable, if not impossible, forms of energy and of matter appeared close at hand. At once it was apparent that the ages of learning had taught next to nothing compared with what remained unknown. The race was again adrift on a rudderless raft in a chaotic sea. A hundred years previous Faraday's work in electricity had had the same effect. Such a stroke would now seem impossible. Millikan has said that physics has advanced more in the past twenty years than it had in the previous two hundred. The pace is being maintained. The raft is growing, but, more than that, the chaos on which we float is apparent to the merest Ph. D.

The sciences are more than ever necessary to each other. Professor H. D. Curtis of the Allegheny Observatory remarked that the perfection of a photographic plate a hundred times as sensitive as the best of today would have the effect of replacing the 36 inch Lick objective by a lens of no less than thirty feet. This is typical of what chemistry can yet do for astronomy, for instance. It is losing its fundamental aspects to physics and may soon be entirely deducible from general laws. But its possible applications in other sciences have hardly begun. A dozen papers in the chemical program would usually have been called physics. The anatomy of the atom is slowly being revealed, and in such a way as to eradicate the differences of three years ago when the physicists demanded an atom composed of rapidly revolving parts to ensure stability while the chemists required a static atom with a definite surface to account for molecules and compound-formation. Here again was a case of reasonableness between two antagonistic hypotheses.

The news accounts of the meetings piled fact on fact, discovery on invention. President Coolidge called it a gathering of the "wonder workers of all the ages." It is the applied science which makes the best story and achieves appreciation. Yet the dissemination of such predigested information, much as it may do for the advancement of scientists, falls short of the education which the association owes to the country. The primary value of a research is that it is fun for the doer. So also the primary value of the account of the work to society is not the result but the method of thought and operation. It was Secretary Charles E. Hughes who spoke the words that most need to be remembered:

> If to an increasing degree we have the security of sound public opinion, if the extravagances and diatribes of political appeals fail of their object, and if notwithstanding the apparent confusion and welter of our life, we are able to find a steadiness of purpose and a quiet dominating intelligence, it is largely because of the multitude of our people who have been trained to a considerable extent in scientific method, who look for facts, who have cultivated the habit of inquiry and in a thousand callings face the tests of definite investigations. With scientific applications on every hand the American people are daily winning their escape from the danger of being fooled . . . We need your method in government; we need it in law-making and in law-administering. We need your interest in knowledge for its own sake; the self-sacrificing ardor of your leaders; your ceaseless search for truth; your distrust of phrases and catchwords; your rejection of every plausible counterfeit; your willingness to discard every disproved theory however honored by tradition while you jealously conserve every gain of the past against madcap assault; your quiet temper, and, above all, your faith in humanity and your zeal to promote the social welfare. We need your horizon; your outlook on the world.

In these things the scientist is inarticulate.

GERALD L. WENDT.

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# The Biological Group

THE consideration of subjects under discussion by the biological groups at the recent Washington meetings was dominated by one interest, function. Classification and description of new structures has come more or less to an end. Neither a glance through a microscope nor a pleasant journey into a far country will of itself yield new data. The shapes and forms of living matter have been described. What do they do? How may this performance be measured? And how shall the control of that activity be secured? These are the questions asked of living matter by the biologist, whatever his official classification, as zoölogist, botanist, anatomist or physiologist. This distinction by title is not now inherent in the type of knowledge he seeks, but rather refers to the use of animal or plant forms and the specific methods of its pursuit. The problem of evolution is no longer all important to the biologist, no matter how it may appear to the layman. Its general outline is accepted and used now, not to explain variations in the form and structure of various animal groups, but rather to account in part for such differences as exist in function. The question of the transition from one animal or plant phylum to another is not under heated discussion. That which holds the interest at the present is the mechanism of control within the individual, its growth, reproduction, maintenance and movement. This is the era of physiology.

After Pasteur and Koch had definitely established the relation between bacterial infection and disease, it was hoped that elaboration of methods and their further application would discover the causative agents of all the bodily ills to which man is heir. But in 1899 an interesting correlation of the activity of certain glands, which have no ducts and pour the products of their secretion directly into the blood stream, was made with metabolic disturbances in other parts of the body. The removal of the pancreas in the dog followed by diabetes and the use of testicular extracts for renewal of youthful vigor in man and rats were the specific data reported. Subsequently experimentation has proved the first to be correct but has been unable to confirm the second. However, this did give a new technique for studying the activity of all glands of internal secretion. Such was the beginning of a type of research which has invaded all fields of animal experimentation.

With the accumulating of data, much of it conflicting to be sure, from the removal of these glands, their transplantation or the use of their extracts has come one of the greatest triumphs of modern physiology, the control of diabetes by insulin. The complete removal of certain of these glands was followed inevitably by death, that of others in young animals by changes in their growth processes. Soon it became apparent that some of them did not only modify bodily growth but together with their effect upon others changed sexual development. The older concepts of these processes disappeared. Parallel with this research ran the work upon foods, their caloric energy, the distribution of the amount of protein, fat and carbohydrate necessary to maintain weight and produce a proper growth curve. All fats, carbohydrates and proteins did not act alike, they were not mutually interchangeable. Some sugars were needed for the young, some fats were more easily assimilated and what is more remarkable certain split products of proteins, amino acids, were necessary for life.

But this was the beginning. Less than fifteen years have passed since the initial studies on beriberi demonstrated that definite changes take place in the nerve trunks of the adult fed upon an exclusive diet of polished rice, and that these changes could be prevented or modified by an addition of the husk itself or its water extract. This extract is now known as vitamine water soluble B. Other substances of a similar nature were described, fat soluble A, necessary for growth, whose absence from food products produces rickets, and water soluble C, the vitamine which protects from scurvy. At Washington greater refinements of work upon these were reported as well as upon others, known as vitamine E or substance X, which affect reproductive power in cows and rats respectively. Not only then is growth, reproduction and life maintained by the activity of internal secreting glands, but also by minute amounts of alcohol or water soluble substances found in certain foods.

At the present meetings the discussion of the biological effects of light stood isolated from the more or less classical work of the preceding years. In 1896 Finsen made the first systematic effort to study these effects and their therapeutic uses by the foundation of his Light Institute at Copenhagen. Some twenty years before this, it was found that sunlight, correcting for the factor of heat, retarded the growth of bacteria. Nearly forty years later it was determined that the shorter the wave length, the greater the lethal effect upon both bacteria and paramoecia. And now in the fish fundulus heteroclitus it has been reported that the amount of variation in development is proportional to the amount of ultra violet which is allowed to act upon it. The greater the amount the more marked the depression of differention, while with less amounts the fish show monster types, always modified at the head end. These strong reactions in living cells are produced by light of a wave length of less than 300 millimicrons (a millionth of a millimeter. Light of such wave lengths penetrates the skin to a depth of 0.1 millimeter. The inflammatory reaction, sunburn, is the result of its absorption. This radiation also increases transiently the number of red blood cells and the amount of hemoglobin in the blood, as well as stimulating the number of lymphocytes, 100 to 200 percent above normal.

Ultra violet light is particularly efficacious in tuberculosis of the bones and joints. It increases the rate of death of moribund cells, stimulates the activity of the remaining normal cells and augments new bone formation. Its fundamental activity in tissue seems to be the same, and for this reason plus its bactericidal action is of service in the healing of wounds. But one of the most remarkable results reported is its use in rickets. In 1921 it was demonstrated that the rickets of infants could be cured by short exposure to the rays of the sun. This was confirmed later by animal experimentation. Further it was shown that inorganic phosphorus in the blood of animals or babies suffering from this disease is reduced and, what is more to the point, that sunlight exposure appeared to be the sole factor in its subsequent return to normal. Also, as is well known, cod liver oil possesses the same magic qualities for its prevention. In spite of these clear cut reports, the literature holds data which seem to indicate that ultra violet light may not be the only factor in the cure of this disease.

Nevertheless, the attempt to radiate foods which have no anti-rachitic factor followed and was successful. The radia-

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tion with a mercury vapor quartz lamp lends to such foods as lettuce, starch, cornmeal, breakfast foods, cottonseed or linseed oils a marked anti-rachitic property and prevents the development of the disease in experimental animals. The sterols such as cholesterol and phytosterol are easily activated. But what is more remarkable the radiation of none too clean cages not only protects their inmates but also those who live in the cage below them. This minute amount of material which gives such powerful protection resembles the negligible quantity of iodine necessary to prevent hypertrophy of the thyroid following removal of three-quarters of the gland in experimental animals. A drop on the animal's tail is sufficient.

This effect of sunlight upon animals corresponds in general to results reported for its action upon plants. Plants kept in houses covered with ordinary greenhouse glass, or under a glass which let in the ultra violet or under one which screened out these shorter wave lengths, grew and flowered normally. But when kept in houses shielded from the ultra violet and the visible violet to the pure blue, or in those protected from all the blues to the green, the plants grew tall, the leaves were not so strong and the flowering tended to be delayed. The shorter the wave length allowed to reach the plants, the more normal the growth. This differs from the work reported upon animals in that the visible violet was active.

At the present time there is no adequate explanation of this phenomenon. When light of very short wave lengths is allowed to fall upon certain substances, such as metals, the energy absorbed at the surface may result in the escape of electrons from the atom leaving the surface positively charged. This phenomenon, first described in 1888, is known as the photo-electric effect. Now the physiological result of radiation may have its origin in the photo-chemical reactions produced when light is absorbed. It is known that light becomes a powerful oxidizing and reducing agent when it acts upon simple chemical substances. Absorption of light energy may increase molecular motion within the body and produce thereby a rise in temperature. Indeed, a rise of surface temperature of 6.5°F, occurs at a depth of 0.5 centimeters on exposure to luminous rays, giving "a temperature possibly exceeding the highest fever temperature ever measured without causing the body temperature to rise in any appreciable degree." These intense reactions for light of short wave lengths is due perhaps to the ionization of photo-electric elements in the skin, blood or general protoplasm of the animals radiated. Light of a longer wave length may prove effective in producing physiological changes if the living cell be sensitized. Substances such as eosin and hematoporphyrin are able to shift the photo-electric threshold of the cell towards the longer wave length, so that the same changes obtained with ultra violet light may be initiated by visible light. It is possible that chlorophyll produces such a sensitization to visible light, thus making it photo-active to longer wave lengths, and at the same time giving greater absorption in the visible spectrum.

Innumerable studies of particular effects which various preparations of ductless glands have upon nervous, secretory or excretory activity were reported. But the one new piece of work in this field was the preparation of an extract from the parathyroid gland of the ox. This, when given intravenously or subcutaneously, kept parathyroidectomized animals out of a tetany, which appeared when the calcium content of the blood fell below a certain figure. It was remarked in another section that the present methods of blood analysis for calcium are questionable. When one field has become able to utilize the methods of another, that field has discarded them! It was ever thus in biology.

In recent years investigation of the nervous system has been largely concerned with the activity of higher centres, such as the cerebral cortex, and their relation to lower ones, with the reflexes maintaining posture, with the reflexes controlling the viscera and finally with the propagation of the nervous impulse.

Something of interest was presented in all these lines of research except the second. Lesions of the motor cortex in man make certain groups of muscles more rigid than others. But when a similar lesion was made in experimental animals after the period of shock paralysis was over, the muscles of the animal appeared normal. However, it was reported that when this lesion was made in cats and the animal held up, the muscles which extend the leg were more rigid than those which flex it, a condition resembling that found in the lower limbs of man under a similar injury.

For some thirty years it has been thought that inflammation of certain viscera might be determined by the position of certain types of skin disturbance. In 1918 such an inflammation was described as the stimulus for the contraction of muscles in the abdomen and lower limbs. Now it is reported that upon electrical stimulation of certain visceral nerve plexuses in mammals, muscles of the abdomen and flexors of the thigh contract. This is important practically and theoretically. It is additional evidence that the afferent nerve fibres from the viscera act through the central nervous system and may modify those portions of the body which are non-visceral. Furthermore, this system, together with the activity of some of the glands of internal secretion, the thyroid for example, modifies the general activity of the somatic part of the system. It was reported that thyroidectomized sheep need more trials than normal ones to learn a maze with food and the herd as reward. What this relation is or how it works is not known at present.

In the consideration of the process of transfer of the disturbance within a nerve, it must be remembered that the nerve trunk contains many separate nerve fibres and that these single fibres branch and end in several muscle cells. Consequently, a nerve trunk is not a homogeneous material nor is one nerve trunk necessarily like another. In studying this rate of propagation and its various characteristics as it passes from one point to another or is transferred from the nerve to the muscle cell, it has been taken for granted that the disturbance passes at the same rate in all fibres. It has been shown that this impulse, known as the action current is made up of several, travelling at different rates in fibres possessing different physiological characteristics.

This resumé is completely inadequate to convey to the reader any correct concept of the great variety of work under investigation in biology. It may be of interest, however, to note that in general the newer work is made possible by the application of the methods of physics, chemistry and physical chemistry to the measurement of life processes. Out of such studies in the distant future may emerge a few correlations of the intricate activity of protoplasm, which may be expressed in the terms of mathematical relationships.

MARION HINES LOEB.

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# Aimless History

THE thirty-ninth annual meeting of the American Historical Association in Richmond during the last five days of December, could claim favorable auspices. Its program included an Anglo-American conference of professors of history at which several British universities were represented, and a "general session" at which the public was offered "new light on recent diplomatic history." Such British authorities as A. J. Carlyle, A. F. Pollard, J. H. Clapham, R. W. Seton-Watson, Harold W. V. Temperley naturally swelled the attendance of the Association itself; the public is always glad of expert opinion on who started the War. This last item justified the whole congress from the standpoint of news interest. Yet it was not a very important session.

The congress offered the stock menu. There were a number of group meetings: on ancient, on mediaeval, on English history for example, at which papers of very unequal merit were read. The group chairman would then invite discussion. As a rule discussion was impossible. Most of the papers were of too technical a nature to admit of discussion, or of too slight interest to warrant it. The chairman's invitation was therefore not taken seriously. "If there is no discussion," he would say with a decent show of surprise, "we will proceed to the next paper. . . ." One had the disagreeable sensation that the chief excuse for this performance was that some delegate might have "read a paper before the American Historical Association." Which at least is bracing for the back-home constituents.

The "general session," which in a sense showed the group system at its most spectacular, may be briefly disposed of here. An American historian read a paper dealing with the diplomatic negotiations of the last few days preceding mobilization in 1914, and this paper was construed by the press next day as an expert's decision that Germany after all had been somewhat shoved into the War. An English historian then disparaged the evidence in the true Oxford Union manner, and proceeded to his own subject—the Peace Negotiations. Another English historian, in the audience, snorted: "It's all rot!"—and left the hall. Another American historian then observed that we needed to get at the ultimate origins of the War, not the immediate; yet the first speaker had explained in his prefatory remarks that he wished to confine himself for the purpose of this paper to the immediate origins. A Scottish historian commented very intelligently on the paper in question, and made in passing one of the most acute remarks of the congress. He asked his audience's indulgence while he "just threw a few more ideas at their heads." In other words he realized the absurdity of a staged debate on a highly technical subject, a subject which by its nature would draw an audience but slightly fitted to deal with technicalities. There was very little purpose to the meeting.

The congress itself seemed, to at least one of its guests, not a member of the Historical Association, to be suffering from the lack of a sense of direction. Most congresses do. The World History Congress, held in Brussels in 1923, displayed the same symptoms in more aggravated form.

At Richmond this aimlessness was reflected by several features: first, by the non-attendance of historians inclined to belittle the whole congress system; secondly, by the tendency speakers displayed to justify, quite unconsciously as a rule, their trade of historian. Some of the British scholars did it by an old formula: history is a guide to the rulers of Empire, and the really good historian is worth nearly as much as a good statesman. The Americans, bred to hustle, exhorted to research without defining that term very accurately. Which leads us to the meeting that may have been the real high spot of the convention.

The program included a group meeting entitled: The Colleges and Historical Research, including three papers and three leading discussions. It looked harmless. But for once the program committee had touched a sore spot. The three listed discussions were followed by a stream of unlisted ones; it was not all good discussion, and it was not free from oratory; but something was happening which it would have been difficult to circularize by mail or broadcast by radio. There was an actual exchange of ideas, not in the lobby, but in a group of two hundred odd delegates. Not only were a number of means discussed for fostering and financing research; one speaker challenged the basic assumption of the meeting: that research at any cost was worth while. In his own homely phrase, "It may not be in you." It was the only remark that a British mediævalist present—judging by his expression—thoroughly understood and approved.

But the meeting proved conclusively that a congress can discuss things that really concern it. And not just in the lobby, either. One may venture the guess that any group meeting that proposed to discuss questions of research, of bibliography, or method as a whole, would drain the lobby, because these questions concern the whole body of historians and not one man. History-writing and history-teaching need to define their functions and their problems. Probably they need, more than anything else, the help of the philosophers. Historians have been imitating natural scientists at their worst for a long time now, and as long as each specialist regards his province as private property secured against interlopers by a massive, and often dull, bibliography; as long as such a specialist performs his task of collating and reëditing in an "unprejudiced" manner, with the shining example of the shrewd diplomat or industrious man of affairs to lend him courage and countenance; so long he will mistrust the philosopher or anybody else who questions his basic assumptions. He merely waves aside critics who have not been initiated into the mysteries. For has he not "facts" at his disposal that will easily overthrow the inexperienced and unworthy philosopher and his unhistoric speculations?

If the history congress persists in clinging to the twenty-minute paper on a technical subject as a basis of its official operations, instead of probing into the problems of method, practical and theoretical, which the historian, and particularly the teaching historian, faces daily, the invitation to discuss is bound to remain a polite hypocrisy. And when once it questions its methods, when it asks why teach history at all, and on what assumptions can history be based, when once it asks indeed why have a Historical Association or an annual meeting, it will be functioning as an association, and not as an aggregation of experts.

It may remain one of our not unpleasant formalities of life, a legal fiction somewhat in want of reinterpretation. Perhaps nothing stupendously dreadful will happen if it does.

F. Stringfellow Barr.

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# Economics—Moral Philosophy or Social Science?

PHILOSOPHY is the childhood of science. As the youth affects the manners and the name of man, before he reaches man's estate, so it is with what we call the social "sciences." They have outgrown their childhood, and though not yet matured they are sensitive that one should call them sciences. They are in the stage of Sturm and Drang.

If one cares to see what a science that has passed its childhood and is in the adolescent stage looks like, he will do well to attend the annual meeting of the American Economic Association which is held during the Christmas recess. This year the economists gathered at the Congress Hotel at Chicago, December 28-31, and with them met the American Sociological Society and half a dozen lesser daughter associations—scientific, propagandist and commercial-technical.

The American Economic Association was founded some forty years ago by a group of younger economists, radical for their day, and it was some time before the conservatives could be induced to join. But from the present distance these men appear to have been radical in their conclusions—they did not believe in strict laissez faire—without greatly altering the general theory of competitive economics from which the laissez faire policy derives. Today this body of economic theory is being called in question, and the eternal process of change finds the younger economists again arrayed against their elders on this more fundamental issue. And on this ground the issue becomes not merely one of doctrine but one of logical method as well—the a priori reasoning, the neat, schematic abstraction and mathematical simplicity of the older economics against the recognition by the new of the complexity and endless variety in human institutions that goes with a functional and evolutionary viewpoint in economics and that is compelled by an appeal to the facts. The President of the Association during the year just ended, Wesley Mitchell, is perhaps the leading exponent of this newer economics.

It is only a few decades since such subjects as economics, sociology, and political science came to be studied and taught by specialized investigators. Today there are over 25,000 members in the Economic Association alone, and internal specialization is growing rapidly, as the economist confines himself more narrowly to some one corner of his field. The subsidiary specialist associations which met with the American Economic Association represent various class interests, the laborer, the farmer, and the banker, and various phases of business such as accounting and marketing.

Intellectual specialization is dangerous at best. It tends to separate compartments of thought and the monograph mind. But for the social sciences there are peculiar dangers in so great a division of labor. When the specialist confines his attention chiefly to the problems of a particular class—and that is the sort of specialization which is developing—he is in danger of becoming imbued with the class bias. By this route the transition from scientist to propagandist is all too easy. The average business man would probably feel this most keenly, if he were to attend some of the meetings of the American Association for Labor Legislation. To him the student of labor problems is likely to appear as somewhat pro-labor. Something the same may be said of the type of specialization represented by the American Farm Economic Association. But that this tendency to class bias is not confined to these groups was strikingly illustrated by the meeting on advertising, in which specialized students of marketing presented their views. This session was planned as a debate on the merits of advertising. But the paper on the Economic Criticism of Advertising turned out to be an appraisal of criticisms, and the Balanced Discussion of Pros and Cons demonstrated the maxim that the middle of the road can be upon the right hand side!

One of the most significant aspects of the present trend in economics which this year's meeting showed is the awakening of the economist's interest in the law. At several of the sessions there were papers devoted to the relations between law and economics. Karl Lewellyn of the Yale Law School demonstrated that it is possible for a man trained in the logic of the law to get out of the rut of legal reasoning and discuss the law as a complex of functioning human institutions. Instead of confining himself to the game of rationalizing legal precedents couched in their venerable phraseology, he proceeded to examine legal-economic institutions as the basis of modern competitive industrial and commercial organization, and to point out how the functioning of these institutions differs from what the economic theory of free competition has usually supposed. Thus it appears that through the common law of contracts the state is regulating industry—"interfering with" industry, if you please—as truly as through legislation regarding purity of food or railroad rates. Unlike the simpler layman's notion of free contract that underlies the older economics, such a view as Professor Llewellyn's lends itself nicely to an evolutionary approach to present day economic institutions and processes. Another very significant phase of Professor Llewellyn's paper is the importance which he attaches to the development of special fields of law adapted to particular types of conflict between opposing economic class interests such as the conflict between employer and laborer, and of specialized arms of the government particularly competent to deal with these delicate and intricate problems.

In his ability to view the law in accurate perspective, Professor Llewellyn stood out in sharp contrast to William Draper Lewis of the American Law Institute, who spoke on The Adaption of the Law to Changing Economic Conditions. While emphasizing the importance of a broad liberal education as a background, Doctor Lewis seemed to feel that the adaption of the law to economic change can only be achieved by steeping the lawyer more thoroughly in those complex traditions which have been preserved to us out of the past in men who have what we call the legal mind.

But the emphasis which Professor Llewellyn put on the functional as distinguished from the more formalistic aspect of things is an important phase in the current development of economics which deserves attention on its own account. Perhaps the paper in which this stood out most clearly was that by Sumner H. Slichter on Competitive Exchange as a Method of Interesting Workmen in Output and Costs. Professor Slichter proceeded to investigate in the concrete the way in which our present wage system functions—how far it stimulates production, and how far it does not; how far production can be measured, why it is not measured as well as it might be; and what can be done to make our wage system work better. In addition to compelling econ-

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omists to grapple more closely with the real problems of the present social order, this functional approach of the new economics bespeaks the growing kinship of the social sciences to biology. The older economics tried to build a social science on the mathematical model of physics, and in the attempt succeeded in being neither social nor scientific.

Many economists are still fascinated by the notion that the general movement of prices is dominated by the gold market, a survival perhaps of the mercantilist views they have so often denounced. Hence they look to monetary policy to bring about stabilization of prices. A number of speakers testified to this faith, but there is a perceptible swing away from the conception of a mere mathematical relationship of the proportionality of the price level to the quantity of gold in money uses and toward a recognition that the influence of monetary policy on prices is a more complex and more human affair—that it works through the effect of interest and discount rates on the periodic fluctuations of business prosperity and depression. This swing was particularly apparent in the papers of John R. Commons, versatile scholar and senior student of American labor problems, and T. E. Gregory, of the London School of Economics.

Probably the most important development which is taking place in the field of social science today—a development which stood out clearly at the Chicago meeting—is the shift from *a priori* moral philosophizing to empirical, scientific method. For the social scientist, experiment as it is known to the exact sciences is scarcely possible at all. He must be content to rely on patient observation. Only by analyzing a great number of observations with the aid of modern statistical technique can he hope to isolate and study empirically the separate influence of any one factor in a social situation.

Thorstein Veblen found the shift toward scientific method to be a result of the influence of machine methods of production upon our ways of looking at things, declaring that the last rites were about to be performed on the older type of economics. And curiously enough, Professor Veblen, an old man, prevented by failing health from attending the meeting to present his paper in person, was answered by a youngster of thirty-three, Professor Raymond Bye, who preached "evolution, not revolution" in economic theory. No doubt the change to a scientific approach is taking place very gradually, and older formulations linger. The ghost of Malthus pervaded the discussions of the population problem by the American Statistical Association, but it is significant of the changing emphasis in method that the problem was being attacked by statisticians.

The "laws" of traditional economics are at best not easy to test statistically. But the increasing appeal to fact has led some of the defenders of the older view to a modified formulation, more attenuated and less meaningful, which shall be true whatever the facts may turn out to be. In contrast to this the watchword of the new economics as sounded by Professor Mitchell in his presidential address, portrays the economic theory of the future as more and more in the nature of hypotheses which can be tested empirically.

MORRIS A. COPELAND.

[NOTE: This address was discussed at length in an editorial in the New Republic of January 28.]

# Surveying the Sociologists

"NOWADAYS," writes Philip Guedalla, in Masters and Men, "things are changing. There are light-minded young things like Psychology, with too many data and no conclusions, and Sociology with too many conclusions and no data."

If the power of suggestion were nearly as potent as M. Coué would have us believe the junior social sciences would have long ere this breathed their last. The poor sociologist, perhaps more than his psychological brother, is constantly being told that he is a sick man. Critics like Mr. Guedalla or Mr. Mencken essay the diagnosis and find that the patient exhibits marked symptoms of elephantiasis in the region of his generalizations. Sometimes it is one of the elder historians who gravely shakes his head over a clinical picture of delusions of grandeur. Or perhaps some economist, dusting off an old gibe at metaphysics, will vouchsafe the "common sense opinion" that the sociologist is now the "blind man in a dark cellar searching for a black cat that is not there."

In the face of the dicta of the learned doctors, the science of sociology not only maintains its hold on life, but continues to thrive and develop with every manifestation of hardy well-being. No one could sit through the crowded three day program of the Christmas meeting of the American Sociological Society without a growing conviction that there *is* a cat of a more or less delineable character actually existent in the cellar.

A rough classification of the forty papers presented at the Nineteenth Annual Meeting of the American Sociological Society, reveals the following topical distribution: Social Psychology 13; Statistical Studies in Sociology 8; Rural Sociology 7; Biological Factors in Social Causation 5; Teaching of Social Science in the Schools 2; Sociology and Social Work 2; Methods of Social Research 2; Educational Sociology 1. This classification is in the nature of the case imperfect and impressionistic, and has no very close correspondence to the announced subject matter of the sections in which the papers were read. However, one can be safe in assuming that a significant number of those who were on the program were mainly interested in social psychology.

The veering of the intellectual weathercock of the sociologists in the direction of social psychology is not the result of a sudden wind storm. The barometer has been steadily dropping in this region ever since the sociologists and the psychologists attempted any really critical use of McDougall's theories in the scientific analysis of specific social problems. The vacuum in the scientific atmosphere which was the net result of these efforts operated, by virtue of a well known meteorological law, to produce an inrush of new doctrinal winds.

Professors Goldenweiser, Park, Faris and Bernard composed the quartette which sang more or less harmoniously the new canticle of social psychology. The theme of this song was in two parts. First came the requiescat in pace of the old instinctivistic psychology and the requiem mass for one of its bastard brood "the kind, long-headed Nordics . . . who never paid their bordics." The second theme was the in excelsis of the new psycho-social approach.

On the constructive and positive side of their social psychology the sociologists do not present a unified front.

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The stand taken by Professor Faris, for example, is, perhaps, more radical than that which might be assumed by Professors Park, Goldenweiser, and Bernard, and is in marked antithesis to the whole "conditioned-reflex" theory represented by Allport. However, the point of view of the Chicago School (as interpreted by Dr. Faris), by reason of its thorough-going repudiation of much of the orthodox theory, may serve the purpose of throwing into relief one of the prominent tendencies in the latter day social-psychological emphasis.

The argument runs in this fashion: the sociologist must rid himself of the impedimenta of conjectures taken over from the biologists and the old line psychologists. Sociology must abandon the neurological and the physiological approach along with the anecdotes and analogies drawn from animal psychology and the study of the behavior of human infants. All this is essentially inadequate and misleading in the analysis of problems which are preëminently problems of culture. The way out of the old dilemma of heredity vs. environment is to realize that these are not forces which operate on passive individuals; but that "heredity" and "environment" are concepts which the scientist has created for his own convenience in the task of investigating a highly complex problem. The hypostatization of either one or both of these concepts can only result in the tail wagging the dog. The contribution of the sociologist to the scientific explanation of human behavior will vary with the measure in which he attempts to state his problems in terms of the actual experience of persons in groups—in terms of the attitude of the individual on the one hand, and the culture of the group on the other.

That this program does not represent solely "the substance of things hoped for" was demonstrated in the section on Biological and Racial Factors in charge of Professor Hankins. The papers read by Professors Dunn, Reuter, Linton and Handman were concrete exhibits of the type of results obtainable when the sociologist checks his work against the growing fund of anthropological and ethnological fact.

Closely allied to the interest displayed by the sociological fraternity in the point of view and discipline of social psychology was the marked insistence on the necessity for more painstaking social research. This research animus was evident in the opening of the Christmas meeting with a special section on Social Research in charge of Professor Ogburn of Columbia. At this meeting, eleven reports were made covering the wide range of specific projects in which the various speakers were engaged. The importance and the significance of the papers read in this section are heightened in view of the fact that the selection was made from a list of over 250 projects which were submitted to the program committee for consideration.

There is also another and more significant tendency toward the refinement of research methods, a tendency implicit in the increasing sectionalization of the yearly program. For example, this year two new sections were inaugurated—the sections on Religious Sociology and on The Family. The admission of these new divisions, when considered together with the other sections which form a regular part of the program of the society (namely, those on Statistical Sociology, Educational Sociology, Methods of Social Research, International Relations, Social Psychology, and Biological Factors in Social Causation) indicates quite clearly a definite tendency to break up the problems, and to specialize the areas of research activity. The accumulation of data, the sharpening of scientific insight, and the refining of methodology, with the attendant particularization of spheres of interest, is the familiar run of events in the growth of every science. However, it must not be assumed that this stress on research represents an entirely novel development, or that the accepted canons of scientific procedure have been alien to the sociologists in the past—Mr Guedalla and all appearances to the contrary notwithstanding. The development of the research emphasis in sociology has been cumulative and persistent. Gradually, the essential futility of the grand manner and the sweeping gestures with which the Balboas of pioneer sociology discovered the Pacific, have been borne in upon the latter day membership of the craft. Philosophies of history, theories of social progress, panaceas and elaborate schemes for the salvaging of civilization are now being rated at their true value. The members of the younger generation of sociologists are exhibiting a refreshing ambition to stay in their own back yard, leaving the historians, the philosophers, and the reformers to play in theirs.

Dean Small is fond of describing the advance of American sociology as a "drive toward objectivity." There is a deal of truth in his statement. It cannot be denied that the sociologists, qua sociologists, have lost the messianic delusion of their early scientific adolescence. It cannot be denied that there has been a marked decline in hortatory zeal, reformatory animus; an increasing tendency to relegate to the last chapter of their text books much of the sacerdotal verbiage of an earlier day.

And yet, when one stands off in the corner and surveys the sociological scene, one begins to wonder—especially if one happens to be a little young and impressionable . . . Where in this heterogeneous group, composed, for the most part, of renegade historians, apostate economists, damaged social workers . . . where, in such a company, is one to find that unity of intellectual interest, that uniformity of cultural back-ground, that harmony and concord in intention, that "like-mindedness," if you please, which one would like to think is characteristic of a scientific group?

And then one wandered over to the meeting of the American Economic Association held, appropriately enough, in the Gold Room of the Congress Hotel. Here there are no social workers, no trousers baggy at the knees, no diffusion of intellectual energies. Cigars—good, expensive, masculine-smelling cigars—are much in evidence; well groomed men stand around having their pictures taken for the trade journals and repeating to each other the lines from The Beggar on Horseback: "overhead, turnover, . . . turnover, overhead." The young sociologist takes heart and returns to his own fold. Oh bitter truth!—not even the economist lambs can lie down with the big business lions and escape bringing home the smell of the jungle.

The sociologists have a long, weary road yet to travel before they achieve their goal of scientific objectivity. Presidents of the American Sociological Society still deliver sermons on Intolerance, instead of contributing to a much-needed unification of sociological method and outlook. The ranks of the sociologists are still recruited from intellectual nebulae so diverse as to threaten to postpone almost indefinitely the creation of a common universe of discourse and a common scientific discipline.

And yet, I repeat there *is* a cat—"a proud mysterious cat." Patience. The sociologists may yet become footloose and free.

EYLER NEWTON SIMPSON.

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# The Great Learned Lobbies

CONGRESS HOTEL, Chicago, December 31, 1924.—Three days in and about the Gold Room. Mostly about, of course, rather than in. "Where *is* the Gold Room?" asked a seasoned economist when the meetings were half over. The rest of us had seen little more of the formal sessions. For in the Gold Room only one man may talk at a time, but in the lobby outside and up and down Peacock Alley there are talking-places for many groups of enthusiastic debaters. And apparently no lonely autocrat of a coal-mining valley, and no trapper mushing in from the North to a Hudson Bay trading post, ever came to a long-deferred talk-fest with more eager tongues. Again and again, the buzz of their conversation surges into the Gold Room itself and threatens to silence the speakers. At home, no doubt, most of these men believe in education by lecture—for their students; here by the hundreds they show their belief—for themselves—in education by talk. The real convention, so every old-timer repeats to the newcomers, is what goes on in the lobbies. The Great Learned Lobbies!

The learning is of many sorts, to be sure. There by the door, for example, an economist and a sociologist stand in deep discussion. Splendid,—the harmony of rival disciplines. "The Finns," says one of them. Anthropology, no doubt—very basic. "The Finns," he continues, *"run on the balls of their feet.* That's how Nurmi——"And some of the conversation, on the other hand, is economic enough but much less spontaneous. Perhaps that youngster talking so rapidly to a graybeard is an earnest ten-minute-man seeking friendly counsel before he reads his manuscript. But more likely he is a job-hunter nervously spreading his intellectual wares on the bargain-counter. For The Lobbies are a trading-post in more than the figurative sense. They are the great academic slave market; behind the elaborate curtain of set speeches and of abstract discussions, goes on the serious business of the buying and selling of men. Few are neither shopping nor being shopped. But for all that, the flood of eager and disinterested economic talk keeps welling up. Most of us resist the fascinating subjects of the Olympics and the Big Ten and Rockne's Four Horsemen, just as most of us resist the dance music of Coon Sanders's Jazz Orchestra on the floor below. (Most, but not quite all. "Curious what some men will do for their rheumatism.") And many a job-seeker forgets why he is really here in excited talk with his fellows. Up and down the corridors it goes on,—subtle dialectic over a nice point of "theory," verbal sleight of hand juggling Laws of Population into Laws of Food and back again while plants and people alternately multiply at alarming rates, shrewd comment on debts and reparations and the follies of governments, the appeal to psychology and its denial.

But why do we value this active and agile talk? For the opportunity of meeting and understanding conflicting theories? So we might piously phrase it, and it would be partly true. The Gold Room programs themselves laid good preparation, and one or two of the round table discussions that for a single afternoon almost emptied the lobbies provided excellent battlegrounds. But this is not the whole story. Most of us, I felt, were eager for a warmth somewhat more genial than that which comes from the appreciation of opposing systems. Just what, I did not quite understand until a series of staccato cheers broke in last night upon the solemnity of the Gold Room,—the strayed revelry of some banqueting Rotarians. A group of economists approached from the direction of the banquet. "What's all that noise you've been making out there?" "Oh, we've just been *cheering the quantity theory of money.*" That made everything clear. Our main business had been just that,—the cheering of our own theories and the booing of our opponents'. One of the younger defenders of old-fashioned theory, for example, had ended a skilful paragraph by tracing the origin of a certain doctrine to "Ricardo himself." "Since when did Ricardo get to be Himself," muttered my neighbor. The dean of the heterodox had sent on a biting analysis of the peaceful penetration of economics by business. "Well, Veblen didn't bother us much," exulted the faithful in the lobbies, "All we did was laugh at him." And when a certain controversy began to crackle into heated discussion on the floor, one of the protagonists made public protest. "I didn't know this was meant to be a debate." Discussion with opponents is all very well, but it is more fun to discuss our opponents with our friends.

Probably this is inevitable. Most of us have at least reached the "years of waning flexibility," and the learning of a new point of view is a long-time process. We all know this in the classroom, whatever we may think when we sit down to convert our opponents by means of a ten-minute or a twenty-five minute paper. And so the set speeches themselves, like so much of the talk in the corridors, have the effect of the yells or war-cries of rival factions—challenge to the opposition and encouragement to the like-minded—rather than that of essays in persuasion. Very much of it, in fact, seems to sift out into two opposing chants, sung with many variations in the lobbies and more sonorously from the speakers' tables. That of the orthodox, chanted boldly by the younger old-masters and a little more cautiously by their elders, sounds something like this:—

There is a fun-
There is a fun-
There is a fun-
damental law.
The law Ricar-
The law Ricar-
The law Ricar-
do clearly saw.

And the rebel faction, as befits their fewer reverences, seem to be setting their battle-cry to the lilt of a certain lewder tune:—

Pro-
LIFerating, CUMulating,
DEATH-to-the-old-law CHANGE-oh!

Not the broadening conflict of opinions. That we can get at home, at least where a tolerant Head or a change of administration has mixed the factions. What we came here for was a "cult reunion" and the confirming and fructifying of our own theories in the fellowship of the like-minded. Above all, the convention has been a Confirmation Meeting. And so, cheering and being cheered, happy and a little hoarse, we leave the lobbies for the return to the outposts and the great silences.

CARTER GOODRICH.

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# Psychology in America

PSYCHOLOGY is a very popular subject. The interest which actual psychologists naturally feel in the field of their endeavors is apparently shared by many others who are concerned with the results and applications of this research. Just how popular psychology is, the recent meeting of the American Psychological Association in Washington amply demonstrated. In practically every one of the specialized sessions into which the meeting was divided a large amount of room, even of standing room, was occupied by outsiders.

What American psychologists are interested in on their own account may be gathered from the great variety of the content of the papers presented at the various sessions. The scope of this interest ranges from theoretical questions concerning the fundamental data and methods of psychology, through the mental influences upon radicalism and morals, how to tell when one is intoxicated, and the question whether chimpanzees have ideas, down to the method of employing clerks and rating them in their work. In general, interest in psychological problems is fairly divided between the various sorts of tests on one hand and experiments performed in the laboratory on the other. The laboratory work, in turn, is distributed over animal experimentation, especially upon rats, and the older and more firmly established work on comparatively elementary human activities, principally those of a sensory character. Experimental research on special forms of seeing, hearing, etc. is decidedly on the increase.

Another indication of the prevailing trends in psychology proper is the close alignment of the psychologists in terms of conventions and traditions of various sorts. The psychologists are pretty completely sorted out into hostile camps upon the basis both of fundamental problems and of special issues of fact. The differences upon fundamental problems put psychologists in sharp contrast with physicists, for example. There are several reasons for the existence of this situation. The assumption of the objective attitude is still very new in psychology. Established ideas, crystallized into fixed preconceptions, maintain a very strong hold still on the students of this science. Accordingly, we find schools of various shades bidding for adherents. At the Washington meeting, for example, much interest was manifested in a distinct, if not entirely new, movement originating in Germany called the Gestalt Psychologie. Few converts may be expected, however. Those psychologists who are not already enrolled under some banner seem inclined toward a greater objectivity than such a modification of spiritualist doctrine as the Gestaltists offer.

Two other circumstances make for a close adherence of psychologists to schools and traditions: the difficulty of the data which they examine and the nearness of the data to the investigator himself. In human psychology, of course, it is his own activities in which the psychologist is interested. Under the combined force of these circumstances the persistence of all sorts of prejudicial dogmas is inevitable. Thus, for example, the nervous system continues to maintain its place both as an important psychological fact and as a method of explanation despite the evidence which neurologists and physiologists are gradually building up to the effect that the nervous functions are quite other than the psychologists have traditionally conceived them.

The elementary experimental methods to which some psychologists continue to adhere whether they apply to the facts or not constitute another such dogmatism. Every scientist must insist by all means upon the experimental verification of whatever hypothesis or bit of information he may develop. But to distort or reject facts in particular instances because one is employing a method that is applicable only in other situations is hardly a profitable procedure. For example, in the study of the psychological aspects of political activity can we expect much from a method which considers the situation as though the acts performed were simple physiological functions? In the scale of scientific values, what weight can the correlation of so-called radical and conservative political opinions with slowness or rapidity of simple acts of various sorts have as compared with the study of individual human beings reacting in an institutional setting with all its social, economic, and traditional complications? That is, experimentation is here in danger of becoming experimentalism. The very effort of the experimentalists, evidenced at this meeting, to divide themselves from the other members of the association and to form an inner circle of higher degree is evidence that this danger is none too remote.

The very commendable effort to keep psychology down on the level of hard facts is typical of the thought of American psychologists. Even the indiscriminate use of experimental methods, though it may have certain conventional and dogmatic implications, serves no doubt as a guarantee that the data of the science will be actual facts and not bare logical constructions or, even worse, day dreams. On the whole it is fair to say that American psychologists are much more interested in facts than they are in ideas. Thus the prospects for general progress in psychology are exceedingly favorable. Among the most hopeful developments of a newer sort is the work on children. A number of papers were presented dealing with child data which will lead to a fruitful increase of our knowledge concerning child development, and so by implication of our information concerning psychological phenomena in general.

Certainly attendants at the psychological sessions must have been gratified to observe the wholesome changes of attitude toward the intelligence tests. In the first place, clinical workers now seem inclined to lean toward the study of the development, training, and surroundings of children and away from an exclusive reliance upon intelligence test scores and I. Q's. No doubt this trend is fairly general, although the tradition still remains which stresses the cruder conceptions of intelligence and its measurements.

Indeed, it is probably safe to say of the general attitude of psychologists toward fundamental problems that the tendency to objectivity is growing. Five out of the six papers read at the general sessions in which fundamental attitudes were of chief importance, very decidedly stressed the necessity of objectivity in psychology and indicated an advance from the older introspectionistic, or subjective, point of view. But one need not consider this fact especially significant. Silence is eloquent, but not necessarily of consent. Those psychologists who cling to the spiritistic tradition do not indulge in the discussion of basic principles. Instead they confine themselves to laboratory studies of mental qualities conducted by the most rigid experimentation with instruments of precision.

J. R. KANTOR.

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# Philosophy: And This Was All the Harvest

THE American Philosophical Association exists in name only. By a brave pretense the Eastern Division maintains the fiction of the "twenty-fourth meeting." Really, however, the American Association came to an end five years ago. The fact is significant. The professors of the middle western group had for some time been meeting on their own account, usually in the spring. They found it troublesome to attend the meetings of the national body, most often in an eastern university, and therefore proposed a regional division. The proposal was adopted. Two months ago the cleavage was made more emphatic by the organization of a Pacific division. The professors of philosophy still meet. But they meet at home.

Even so, the members do not attend. The Eastern Division includes Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Johns Hopkins, Princeton and Cornell, and two or three score colleges. The meetings of the Division on December 29 and 30 were held in a small class room. The presidential address was delivered in the parlor of a fraternity chapter house.

At these meetings the members of the Division smoked. This was the first occasion in the history of this association upon which tobacco has spiced philosophy. Naturally the phenomenon became the subject of desultory conversation on the walks to and from the dining hall. By general agreement, this was the effect of a Quaker atmosphere. The program bore the following ill-advised announcement: "According to a long established custom of the College, there is no smoking in the main building; but this does not apply elsewhere." A clear invitation. But this is only an efficient cause. The final cause was implicit in the program.

The two morning sessions were devoted to papers on various philosophical subjects. None of these presumed to offer anything in the way of a discovery or even a fresh synthesis of fundamental philosophical conceptions, neither did any single one overtly raise the issues upon which the philosophers are divided into schools.

Discussion was desultory. Readers were asked what they meant by a given word and informed that the questioner does not use it in that sense. After Professor Morris Cohen's paper, The Romantic Element in Kant's Philosophy, in which he pointed out in his usually brilliant and witty fashion that Kant was not wholly a formalist, some one protested that he did not consider Kant a romantic, to which Mr. Cohen replied that he should hope not; he had intended to refer only to a certain element. The most constructive paper on the program, read by a young German scholar, Dr. Edgar Wind, who is not a member of the Association, dealt with the basis of æsthetic judgment. Discussion was prevented by the necessity of finishing in time to catch an early train.

The afternoon session was devoted to the memory of Professor James E. Creighton, one of the founders of the Association, who died last October. The tone of the papers was extraordinarily defensive, so that the net effect was one of severe criticism skilfully warded off. In his conduct of the Philosophical Review, it appeared, Professor Creighton had been suspiciously favorable to papers of his own way of thinking; but this was due to a fine contempt for superficiality, and flippancy. In his writing, he might have seemed to be meticulous and dull, so great was his abhorrence of cheap originality and devotion to careful scholarship in the service of established truth. He often deplored, one of his colleagues said, a certain disposition in students not to oppose him in argument. He loved real intellectual clash, he used to say, when scholars marshalled their full resources against each other. But if there was one thing he could not tolerate it was prejudiced opinion and mere shirking insubordination. Upon that he had no mercy.

The passing of Professor Creighton is very significant. It represents the passing of the last phase of the transcendental tradition, run out into a mildly ecclesiastical negation. The Philosophical Association was founded in the heyday of this school. Its weakness is due to the fact that the philosophy of the founders has withered but has not yet been ploughed under. Nearly fifteen years ago a new sect arose, the New Realists. For a time their shock troops made the meetings lively. They have become more numerous. They have even subdivided. But they have also, apparently, grown apathetic. The most vigorous tradition is of course the one represented by Professor Dewey. It could probably capture the programs of the Association. But pragmatism is sceptical of metaphysics and indifferent to the Association. It prefers to express itself before a wider public.

In his presidential address Dr. Alexander Meiklejohn called upon the philosophers to save the world from confusion and apathy. No one laughed.

C. E. A.

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